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POPULAR GUIDE

TO THE

PROFESSIONS.

BY

R. W. ATKINSON.

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CONTENTS.

ARMY.
AUCTIONEERING.
BAR.
CIVIL SERVICE.
CLERICAL.
ENGINEERING.
LITERARY.
MEDICAL.
MUSICAL.
NAVY.
SCHOLASTIC.
SOLICITOR.

LONDON:
WARD, LOCK & BOWDEN, LIMITED,
WARWICK HOUSE, SALISBURY SQUARE, E.C.
NEW YORK AND MELBOURNE
1895.
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PREFACE.

THE main object of this work is to assist Parents in the selection of a Profession for their sons and daughters, and in the case of Guardians for those entrusted to their care.

What shall I make my boy, and to which Profession shall I have him trained? are questions often asked with some amount of anxiety by many, and when it is fully understood what are the varied claims of the different Professions they are questions that are often very difficult to answer.

Another object of this work is to give the *modus operandi* to be adopted by candidates desirous of entering the Professions referred to in the contents. Where the passing of Examinations is compulsory, suggestions with respect to, and particulars of, such Examinations are given.

It will readily be seen that it would be impossible, in a small treatise dealing with twelve different Professions, to treat each exhaustively, therefore the Author has tried to give an outline only of the abilities and qualifications favourable to success; the Examinations to be passed, where such Examinations are necessary; and the prospects of success where the Profession is followed with energy and a real determination to succeed.

Throughout, the Author has striven to be as practical as

possible, and for this reason, if for no other, it is hoped that this work will prove of use to all who may be interested in the Professions treated of. No effort has been spared to make the work as accurate as possible, and it has been brought well down to date.

The Author trusts that the hints given, and the information which the work contains, may be of service to his readers.

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POPULAR GUIDE

TO THE

PROFESSIONS.

CHAPTER I.

THE ARMY.

SOLDIERING in point of antiquity is the oldest of the Professions, though in the world's infancy there was no choice offered with regard to it, but every man was a soldier in self-defence.

No introduction is needed to this branch of the British service, which stands securely on its own footing, having no need of any feeble props in the way of laudation from outside, having enshrined in its history a Roll of Honour which is the glory of our country. I pass at once to the—

I.—QUALIFICATIONS.

And first, let it be understood that to rise in the Army, whether as officer or private, will need industry and intelligence. Promotion, in time of peace, is largely the result of hard work. The Army is a very different institution now from what it was sixty or seventy years ago, when commissions were bought and sold. Entrance into Sandhurst is now the result of competition, and the best men come to the front. This is sometimes denied. It is said that a man without brains may make a splendid soldier. This is not true even in the lower grades of the Profession, and certainly no officer could rise to a high and responsible command nowadays unless he had proved himself thoroughly acquainted with the technical part of his profession. So that in the second

place a lad should be gently sounded by his parents, and should receive their sympathetic advice, while under their control, about coming to a definite decision as to his future career when fifteen or, at the latest, sixteen years of age, and should work steadily for the next three years, if his choice be the Army. The importance of the three years from fifteen to eighteen cannot be over-estimated; they will either make or mar a lad's future. In the third place, if some taste for soldiering develops itself, there need be no hesitation about the profession to be adopted. If, on the contrary, a strong distaste for the Army is manifested, it would be folly to send a young fellow into it. If, however your son is like some of the unimpressionable lads of the present day, unbiassed by any predilection for any profession save that of a gentleman at large, decide for him, and set him to work for the Army examinations. If he is at a public school where there is an Army class, such as exists in nearly all large public schools nowadays, let him join it, and work persistently for the end in view.

II.—How to Enter the Army.

I will suppose that our future General has made up his mind, with his parents' consent, to try for a commission in Her Majesty's forces. How must he set about it. A good deal will certainly depend on the locality in which he lives, and on the situation in which he finds himself at the time when he finally determines on this Profession. If he is already at a public school where fellows are prepared for the Army, let the parent first of all satisfy himself that the preparation classes will be really useful and effective, and that they will prove more than a mere excuse for lounging and idling away time through the tendency which prevails at some schools to allow greater privileges and freedom from restriction to those who have joined the Army class. There is the alternative method of sending him to a "crammer." You ask what I think about this method.

There is much to be said on both sides. The "crammer" is a man who has studied the art of getting fellows through examinations. He is *au fait* with most of the habits, dodges, and vagaries of examiners, and trains his pupils to meet them, and usually with more success than is attained by public schools. If, however, the boy is really good all round and above the

average, he will have very little difficulty in passing into Sandhurst on his school form, provided geometrical drawing has formed part of his curriculum. Cramming in the case of a backward boy means a deal more of individual care and attention on the part of the teacher, and twice as much work from the pupil. If the cramming establishment should happen to be close to the boy's residence, and if, consequently, whilst attending it he will have the advantage of being under the paternal roof, a serious objection to cramming establishments from a moral point of view will be obviated. There are certainly more temptations incidental to a young fellow when sent away from home to the unrestricted freedom of a large cramming establishment than would come in his way at a public school. Moreover, the feeling of *esprit de corps*, the contempt displayed towards "loafers" at a public school, the physical and recreational advantages, the strict discipline, all tend to give the school an advantage over the crammer. At the same time the latter will be more successful, so far as the examination is concerned, if the boy is backward.

Taking it for granted that this moot point is settled one way or another to the satisfaction of all concerned, I now pass to the consideration of the orthodox ways of entering the Army: (1) through Sandhurst for Infantry or Cavalry; (2) through Woolwich for Engineers or Artillery; (3) through the Militia for any branch of the service.

A. *Sandhurst.*

To pass through Sandhurst is the recognised normal mode of securing a commission in an infantry or cavalry regiment. The way to go to work is to pass two examinations, one entitled the Preliminary, the other the Further, the latter being competitive, the former merely a test examination.

The subjects for the former are given under the third mode described; namely, the Militia.

The subjects for the latter are given in the same place, with one or two trifling exceptions.

Full information with regard to admission into Sandhurst may be obtained from the Director-General of Military Education, Horse Guards, War Office, London, S.W., price 1*d.*

Limit of age nineteen. The preliminary examination may not be passed before the age of fifteen.

B. *Woolwich.*

Training at the Royal Military College at Woolwich is given to cadets who desire to enter the Artillery or Engineering divisions of the service.

The regulations are much the same as for Sandhurst, but the preliminary may be passed as early as fourteen.

The age for admission is between sixteen and eighteen.

In the Further Examination, in addition to the subjects before referred to, more advanced mathematics will be required, *e.g.*, statics and dynamics are obligatory, marks 3000; so that a special premium is placed on proficiency in this branch of education. Moreover, in the optional subjects the following further choice is given.

Further questions and problems on the subjects of the Obligatory Examination.

Statics. Problems and exercises will be extended to friction. The geometrical method of treating such problems should be studied.

Dynamics. Problems involving analytical methods of solution (but not differential calculus) will be extended to collisions and work.

Analytical Geometry.

Conic Sections.

The Woolwich examination is generally considered harder than Sandhurst, but the truth is that the two examinations set in somewhat different directions. A boy whose strong point is mathematics will not have great difficulty in passing into Woolwich, where the competition is not so keen as at Sandhurst, at which latter place the examination is of such a nature as to secure the boy with the best general knowledge.

Full information supplied from the Horse Guards for one penny.

C. *The Militia.*

The Army Preliminary Examinations are held on the second Wednesday in March, June, September and December. Applications must be sent into the office of the Civil Service Com-

missioners not later then the 12th of the preceding month. Any number of trials allowed. Fee, £1. Subjects:

(1) Mathematics:
  (*a*) Arithmetic, including vulgar and decimal fractions, proportion and interest.
  (*b*) Euclid, Book I.
  (*c*) Algebra, up to and including simple equations.
(2) French or German: translation and grammar.
(3) English dictation legibly written.
(4) Latin: parsing, translation with aid of vocabulary.
(5) Elements of geometrical drawing.
(6) Geography.

If successful in the Preliminary the candidate will then sit for the Further examination, which is held half-yearly, beginning on the second Tuesdays in April and October.

Applications to be sent up through the commanding officer on behalf of the Militia subaltern officer, and to reach the military secretary not later than the 15th of February or 15th of August respectively. Certificate from Civil Service Commissioners of having passed the Preliminary to be forwarded. Three trials only allowed.

Only two of the subjects may be taken up in Class II. This examination is not competitive so far as the Militia is concerned.

Class I. (*Obligatory*).	Marks.
(*a*) Algebra, up to and including the binomial theorem; the theory and use of logarithms ...	2500
(*b*) Euclid, Books I. to IV. and VI.	
(*c*) Plane trigonometry, up to and including solution of triangles, and mensuration...	
(*d*) Latin	2000
(*e*) French or German (400 for colloquial)	2000

Class II. (*Optional*).	
1. Higher Mathematics. (In all the following subjects great importance will be attached to accuracy in numerical results): Further questions and problems on the subjects of the obligatory examination	2000

Class II.—(*continued*).	Marks.
Statics: The equilibrium of forces acting in one plane and of parallel forces, the centre of gravity, the mechanical powers, and friction. (The graphical or geometrical method of treating such problems should be studied as well as the analytical. No application of the differential calculus to statics will be required.)	2000
Dynamics: Uniform, uniformly accelerated, and uniform circular motion, falling bodies and projectiles in vacuo, collisions and work. (Analytical methods of solution, but not the use of the differential calculus, will be involved.)	
Analytical Geometry: Problems on straight line and circle	
Conic Sections: Elementary properties, with easy problems both on the analytical and geometrical methods	
2. German or French, as alternating with subject (*e*) in Class I. (400 for colloquial)	2000
3. Greek	2000
4. English History. There will be set: one general paper; one paper limited to a fixed period, of which notice will be given	2000
5. Chemistry. Elements of inorganic chemistry ...	2000
6. Physics. Elementary properties of electricity, magnetism, heat, light, and sound	2000
7. Physiography and Geology	2000

In each of the subjects (5), (6), and (7) the examination will be partly practical.

Class III.

1. Geography	500
2. Drawing, freehand	500
3. „ geometrical	1000

The militia candidate (supposing that he has passed his Further) may now proceed to the competitive examination provided he is under 22 years of age on the 1st of January preceding the examination. Those, however, who have com-

pleted three annual trainings, are permitted to compete for another year.

Twice a year in March and September at Aldershot, Colchester, Devonport, Dover, Portsmouth, York, Edinburgh, Belfast, Cork, Dublin.

Subalterns should state whether they are candidates for Artillery, Cavalry, or Infantry. Applications through Commanding Officer to be sent before Jan. 15 and July 15 respectively. Following papers required:

(*a*) Certificate of birth.

(*b*) Certificate of required number of trainings, and of fifteen months service in the corps. Two annual trainings required.

(*c*) Certificate on army form E. 527.

(*d*) Certificate from Civil Service Commissioners of having passed previous examinations, together with a certificate in geometrical drawing.

(*e*) Candidate's address and statement at which centre he wishes to attend.

Medical Examination both before and after the Competitive.

The subjects for Militia Subalterns in the Competitive Examination are:—

	Marks.
(1.) Fortification	600
(2.) Military Topography	600
(3.) Elements of Tactics	600
(4.) Military Law	600

About 150 commissions are given yearly to Militia Subalterns, and about 350 to Sandhurst cadets in the two branches of the service, the Infantry and Cavalry.

It will be understood that the Militia Subaltern will be able to reside at home, if his home be conveniently situated with reference to the Militia Regiment that he may join, and so undoubtedly economy is effected; the chief expenses being mess expenses for the month during which the regiment may be out, and the kit with uniform, which, however, will serve him later, if he joins a regiment in the Line.

D.—*The Ranks.*

I shall consider this division of the subject mainly with reference to the prospects of gaining a commission from the ranks.

Little need be said on this subject. A few years ago the chances of rising to a commission were greater than they are now, inasmuch as, according to a comparatively recent order, six years service are indispensable before the much-coveted prize can be won. It has been found that, as a rule, the best officers do not come, and are not likely to come, from the ranks. Very often the gentlemen who enlist are idle, ne'er-do-wells, who frittered away their time whilst supposed to be preparing for their army examination, and then enlisted in despair, as a last resource. These men are not likely to have the steadiness and the perseverance and the tact which are necessary when dealing with large bodies of men. If, however, a young man of good social position enlists with the sole disinterested object of saving his parents any expense, he will have exhibited, by so doing, such nobility of character and such a resolute determination to rise, that he will most likely be proof against the coarse influences of the barrack-room, and would stand an excellent chance of getting a commission after six years' service.

At this point, I must turn to the private, and give the following twelve reasons for joining the Army as issued by the War Office. Further particulars may be obtained from a pamphlet entitled, "The Advantages of the Army," procurable at any post office in the United Kingdom free of charge.

1. Because many young men have a patriotic desire to take a share in the defence of Queen and Country.

2. Because a soldier's life is often one of interest and adventure.

3. Because a soldier leads a manly and vigorous life. He is taught self reliance, self respect, smartness, punctuality, and obedience; qualities of value to him all his life, whilst his physical strength is increased by gymnastics.

4. Because most soldiers can go abroad and see places which few in civil life can afford to do. Troops are sent to India, China, Egypt, South Africa, Ceylon, the West Indies, Bermuda, and Nova Scotia, and are brought home again without any expense to themselves.

5. Because a soldier can win honours and decorations which are worn and prized by the highest in the land.

6. Because a soldier in time of peace has easy work, plenty of

amusements and holidays on full pay. Athletic clubs, gymnastics, libraries, concerts, theatricals, and every other form of healthy recreation are encouraged in the Army.

7. Because a soldier's life is a healthy one, and builds up a good constitution. He has plenty of out-door exercise, good food, and clothing specially adapted to that part of the world in which he is serving.

8. Because every soldier has spare time to improve himself by attending school and qualifying for promotion.

9. Because a soldier can gain promotion and increased pay by being steady and doing his duty.

10. Because a soldier who leaves the Army after seven years' service receives a sum of about £21, and if of good character he is eligible, on transfer to the Army Reserve, for employment, as suitable vacancies occur, in the Post Office, and in certain Railway Companies, and also in various private employments, through the agency of the National Association and other special societies.

11. Because if a soldier stays in the Army for twenty-one years, and serves for at least three years as a non-commissioned officer, he earns a pension for life, varying from £22 to £50 a year, according to his rank and service as a non-commissioned officer. If he becomes a Warrant Officer, he can earn a pension of over £80 a year.

12. Because a soldier may, if he qualifies himself for it, rise to be an Officer. There are at the present time in the Army over seven hundred officers holding the Queen's commission who enlisted as private soldiers.

The ordinary conditions for enlistment are as follows:—

Age—18 to 25 years.

Height { Household Cavalry 5ft. 11in. to 6ft. 1in.
Cavalry 5ft. 6in. to 5ft. 11in.
Artillery 5ft. 4in., and upwards.
Engineers 5ft. 4in., and upwards.
Foot Guards 5ft. 9in., and upwards.
Infantry 5ft. 4in., and upwards.

Chest measurement not below 33in. (more in proportion to height.)

Weight not less than 115lb.

The following are some additional advantages gained by entering the Army, as given in Army Form B 80:

(1) It is plainly stated in the pamphlet headed "The Advantages of the Army," that all uniform, rations of bread and meat, lodging, coal, light, and a "free kit" on joining, are supplied without charge, but that the soldier will have to pay for his underclothing, repairs to clothing, vegetables, groceries, and washing.

(2) The bedding is clean and comfortable, and the clothing is warm, and suitable for the duties the soldier has to perform.

(3) The food is as varied as possible, and of good quality.

(4) If the value of the bread and meat ration, lodging, clothing, firing, light, and medical attendance, be added to the pay, it will be seen that the amount that every soldier receives is not less than 15*s.* per week.

(5) In addition to the above, a sum of £3 a year is placed to his credit (provided he enlists for more than three years with the colours), and is paid to him on transfer to the Reserve or Discharge on completion of service. The Regimental Savings Bank pays interest at the rate of $3\frac{3}{4}$ per cent. per annum, whilst the civilian who deposits his money with the Post Office Savings Bank receives interest at the rate of $2\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. only.

(6) The foregoing apply to the recruit immediately on attestation. With length of service his income may be increased by good conduct pay, after two years' service by 2*s.* 6*d.*, after six years by 5*s.*, and after twelve years by 7*s.* 6*d.*, per month.

(7) There are plenty of openings for private soldiers to earn extra pay as officers' servants, grooms, mess waiters, sergeants' mess waiters, canteen waiters, police, tailors, shoemakers, &c., &c. Musicians, and those wishing to become musicians, can join the band of their regiments, where they will be instructed and furnished with a musical instrument. Men who show marked ability are sent to the School of Music, Kneller Hall, where music in its highest branches is taught; and, if qualified, may be appointed to a regiment as bandmaster.

(8) Private soldiers can obtain malt liquors, tobacco, &c., at the canteen, and tea, coffee, &c., at the coffee bar. These articles are supplied as near cost price as possible, and at prices which are, in every case, far below those paid by civilians.

(9) A soldier can never feel the pinch of poverty; he need have no care for the morrow; his work seldom exceeds five hours a day, and very often is less. Young men without a trade cannot obtain such treatment elsewhere. Moreover, a private soldier who serves for twenty-one years and upwards may obtain a pension varying from 4*s.* 8*d.* to 10*s.* 6*d.* a week. A non-commissioned officer's pension varies from 8*s.* 9*d.* to 24*s.* 6*d.* a week, and that of a warrant officer from 21*s.* to 35*s.* a week Thus many a good soldier may obtain a provision for his old age without having to pay any money towards it.

(10) There are schools at most stations for the use of those who may wish to avail themselves of such an opportunity of improving their education, without payment.

(11) In addition to the above, there are reading rooms, well stocked libraries, and recreation rooms for games, &c.

(12) Out-door sports and games are encouraged, such as cricket, football, running, jumping, &c., and money prizes are given annually, to be competed for by all ranks. Dramatic, concert, swimming, shooting, and other clubs are formed for the soldier's amusement and pastime. Well-conducted soldiers are allowed standing passes to be absent from barracks after 10 p.m. till midnight, daily. Men wishing to leave the town can obtain passes for that purpose. Furloughs, or leave of absence, are also granted to well-conducted soldiers each year, during which time they receive not only full pay, but also the value in money of their free ration of bread and meat. The Railway Companies issue return tickets to soldiers proceeding on pass or furlough for a single fare.

(13) In civil life, many working men start work at 6 a.m. and leave off at 6 p.m., with half an hour for breakfast and an hour for dinner, a great number being employed on work which is injurious to their health; whilst the recruit has four hours' drill per diem in summer, *i.e.*, one hour before 8 a.m., two hours before 12 noon, with a rest between each hour, and one hour after 2 p.m. At stations where there is a gymnasium, one of

the above-mentioned drill hours will be passed in that building in exercises that will improve the health and give pleasure.

(14) Promotion is now very rapid; men who are fairly educated frequently reach the grade of Corporal in two years, that of Sergeant in three years, and the higher grades in proportion.

(15) Non-commissioned officers obtain extra pay whilst employed as Clerks, School Assistants, Gymnastic Instructors, &c.

(16) As a means of adding to their self-respect, the Sergeants live apart from the private soldiers, having separate sleeping rooms, and rooms set apart for their messing and recreation.

(17) To young men wishing to see the world, to rise in the social scale, to obtain a provision for old age, or to lead a life of adventure, the Army offers facilities not to be found, without a long and expensive apprenticeship, in any other profession or calling.

(18) It is impossible to enumerate all the advantages of a soldier's life, but the above should be sufficient to induce young men desirous of finding a noble profession to seek it in Her Majesty's Army, instead of struggling to obtain a livelihood in the overstocked labour market.

III.—Prospects.

The rate of promotion in the Army varies considerably, even in time of peace. The number of retirements in one year may be greater than in another, and will cause an increase of vacancies. In time of war promotion will, of course, be more rapid. Again, those fortunate lieutenants who happen to belong to some expeditionary force and to distinguish themselves will not have long to wait for their captaincy.

But it is open to any young officer of ability and perseverance to pass into the Staff College about the age of thirty, or even younger, when his pay is increased and his prospects of obtaining a high staff appointment are excellent. It may safely be said that the picked men of the Service pass through this College. There are eighteen vacancies for the Line, three for the Royal Artillery, a few for the Engineers, Indian Staff

Corps, and for the other branches of the Service. Competition is very keen, but the subjects for examination do not materially differ from those for the final examination before getting one's Commission.

It is generally well known that in what are called "crack" regiments an officer cannot live on his pay; and, indeed, the Household Troops (Life Guards, Royal Horse, Grenadier, Scots, Coldstreams) are officered by men who can find at least £200 besides their pay. Promotion in a superior regiment is considered likely to prove more rapid than in a second-class regiment. Again, promotion in the cavalry is speedier than in the infantry.

There are, however, some regiments in which the officer can just live within his pay; indeed, some officers have nothing besides their pay to depend on, so they must subsist on it, but if an allowance of £50 a year can be made by the parent, it would add to the subaltern's prestige on first joining his regiment.

Before joining a regiment the cadet or his father should inquire from the colonel or some senior officer as to whether his son's means would permit of his entering such a corps; he will then get an opinion worth having. It would be impossible as well as invidious to attempt to classify all the regiments in Her Majesty's army from the point of view of their expensiveness, more particularly as what holds true of a regiment to-day may shortly become unreliable owing to a different standard of expenditure being adopted by the officer in command. At the same time the following general observations hold good:

The Household Troops are the most expensive regiments. Cavalry regiments are more expensive than infantry in the proportion of 5 to 3. It is obvious, however, that a great deal depends on the discretion of a young subaltern in the management of his finances and, to a great extent, regulating his expenses according to his means.

In the Indian Staff Corps an officer can comfortably live on his pay, a lieutenant receiving about £350 a year in India, whereas elsewhere he gets something less than £100 a year. A colonel in the Indian Corps will get £1,400, whereas his brother officer in England will only get about £440. The West India Regiment is a very useful regiment for those who are obliged to study economy.

The stations allotted to it are Sierra Leone and some of the West Indies, but exceptional advantages are given by way of furlough and £73 additional pay.

The Engineer and Royal Artillery officers can live on their pay, which, for a lieutenant in all regiments and services, varies only from 5*s*. 3*d*. to 6*s*. 8*d*.

Perhaps the best corps of all to join, for those who can put up with few laurels on the field of victory, is that of the Army Service Corps, the commissariat department, practically a non-combatant force. The lieutenant begins with 10*s*. a-day, 1*s*. allowance for servant per diem, and forage for one horse; promotion also is more rapid than in some of the other branches of the Service. The lowest retiring pay for an officer is £1 a-day.

The cost of a cadet at Sandhurst, if the son of an officer, would range from £20 to £80; for the son of a private gentleman the cost runs up to £150.

The cost of the outfit will vary, but will range from £50 to £100.

Here I must leave the gallant defenders of our native shores, and of our vast Empire, Indian, Colonial, Polynesian, merely expressing the earnest hope that the best material our country can produce may be forthcoming to maintain the glorious traditions of our gallant British officers and brave soldiers, of whom it has been well said that "they never know when they are beaten."

CHAPTER II.

THE AUCTIONEERING PROFESSION.

This Profession has attracted to itself in recent years a large number of young men. It yields a rich return to those engaged in it. The duties attached to it have grown considerably with the progress of time and the increase of population. The class of persons attracted to it is of a higher order now than formerly. It offers many advantages to the painstaking young man who means to rise by energy and self-reliance. It includes land surveying, valuing, fire and life insurance, collection of tithes, land and house agency, and many other items of a less prominent character.

In his capacity of land surveyor the auctioneer has many and varied opportunities of seeing the country, and this part of the work is usually most congenial, being invigorating and healthy. The auctioneer's work is by no means all desk work; he is not kept in close confinement as a quill-driver; his epitaph cannot be sadly and epigrammatically inscribed as in the case of the broken-down clerk: "Born a man, died a bank clerk." He makes frequent excursions into the country. After this brief introduction, I proceed to consider this eminently useful member of society, this representative of almost all of us, in the different aspects of his profession—(1) with reference to his duties, (2) as to his qualifications, (3) as to the steps he must take to enter the profession, (4) as to his prospects.

I.—His Duties.

The old Latin proverb has it, "quod facis per alium, facis per te," which, being interpreted, denotes the auctioneer's business: "what you transact by the agency of another is your own transaction." An auctioneer is the agent of another in what is

perhaps the oldest of all human business relations, namely, that of barter or sale. It is a calling regulated by law, so that a licence is necessary (£10 per annum), but this anyone may obtain.

The duties of the auctioneer are quasi-legal: he is continually dealing with the solicitors on behalf of the vendor. The relative obligations of the solicitor and the auctioneer have never been rigorously defined. In some places, for instance, the auctioneer draws up the handbill of sale; in other parts of the country the vendor's solicitor does so. Where it is the auctioneer's duty to do so, great caution is required in seeing that the handbill truly describes the nature of the property to be disposed of, and, in the case of land, whether the bill is in accordance with the deeds on which the title rests, otherwise, even after the auction, before the sale is completed, it may be quashed, and in some cases compensation may have to be given. Part of the auctioneer's business is to receive a deposit on the part of the purchaser at an auction.

The auctioneer's liabilities are very varied, and disputes continually arise from which he is the sufferer. Solicitors can always be found on the part of disappointed vendors or discontented purchasers, who can entangle the unwitting auctioneer in the meshes of the law, owing to some trifling act of forgetfulness or impetuosity. Sometimes if he receives a deposit he may find that he has done wrong, as the solicitor was the proper person to receive it; or if, on the other hand, on another occasion he refuses it on that ground, he may find that in that particular instance he ought to have netted it. The legal technicalities that hedge the auctioneer round are numberless. He may not, for instance, sell excisable articles without an excise licence. He must also by statute law before beginning the auction suspend a board containing his name, and keep it suspended during the sale, outside the place where such sale is being carried on.

No additional licence is required for valuing and house agency.

A hawker's licence (£2 a year) is necessary where goods are carried about from place to place for sale. It would seem also that an auctioneer may not travel about from town to town

selling goods which have been sent on in advance. For this a pedlar's licence is needed.

The drawing-up of the advertisement of the sale and the wall-bill connected therewith, affords a splendid opportunity for the display of pictorial language and imaginative colouring. The auctioneer's business is to make the best of the article for sale. If too concise he may fail to attract the best bidders. He may leave out some perfectly justifiable item in the description which might take the fancy and exactly suit the taste of some wealthy passer-by. Over-exaggeration of course is foolish, and may land the vendor or the agent, whether solicitor or auctioneer, in a lawsuit. The auctioneer must bear in mind that wealth is now being distributed amongst an ever increasing number of persons with more money than refinement, and that it is largely for these persons that he must cater. Of course, the auctioneer's pupil, or the young auctioneer, soon learns to describe the different kinds of property that are to come under the hammer, and draws the description accordingly. When sent down to view house-property or land he must be quick to grasp the special features of the property and its peculiar advantages; he must discover everything that will tell in its favour and that will tend to make it a desirable purchase in the eyes of the public. Too much care cannot be exhausted over this particular point. The auctioneer need not (if he is a man with any descriptive powers) allow his bills to run all in one groove; sometimes the advertisements have to be got out expeditiously, even hurriedly, but nevertheless make the most of the property. It has been remarked, that though there is often a good deal of padding in auctioneers' advertisements, when the property has been closely examined there were quite as many advantages omitted from the bill. Remember, that the purchaser does not look at the property from the auctioneer's point of view; each purchaser has his peculiar idiosyncrasy, and if once his sensitiveness in a certain direction is excited, he has almost certainly been won. Even such a peculiarity as a ghost story attaching to a house has been known to add to its value. There is such a mania on behalf of persons, Americans and others, for getting hold of something old, be it a residence or an article of *vertu*, that anything that savours of antiquity, or that is *bizarre*, will tempt

them to run up the price at the sale. A "Charles the Second's hiding-place or bed-chamber," "historical associations," and the like, where of course they are true, will certainly help forward the bidding in the eyes of the more sentimental section of bidders.

The particulars of sale in the case of all articles should signify, in common honesty, any glaring defects. In the case of property any restrictions of whatever kind should be clearly stated, as it is good law that any charge upon estate or any curtailment of the purchaser's enjoyment of it, shall render the sale void. So that all shooting rights, or common-land rights, any power of pre-emption belonging to someone other than the vendor, and, indeed, anything of a like nature that infringes upon the absolute ownership of the property and fee simple, should be definitely scheduled. Even unintentional errors in the particulars of sale, and omissions from the conditions of sale, will justify the purchaser in a refusal to complete the contract. The auctioneer is alone responsible for any errors he may make, the vendor being expressly guarded by law.

A no less important division of an auctioneer's duties will be that of valuing. Valuations between two parties, a buyer and a seller, will often lead to contentions; this is unavoidable. Some valuations, however, are made on behalf of a third party, and will not lead to disputes. Valuation is always delicate work, and the office would be a thankless one were it not for the high rate of pay attaching to it. The value of property fluctuates considerably at different epochs and under diverse circumstances. The valuation must be fixed always on the present value, sometimes, also, on a prospective value. This has to be done where an estate lies on the outskirts of a large, ever-growing town, the future prospects must be taken into consideration. Agricultural properties have of recent years notoriously fallen in value. The valuer's difficulty will vary with the property. Ordinary properties may be gauged by their rental. In those cases where specially complex circumstances render the valuation a thorny matter, all the data must be taken into account. The market value may not always be taken as the surest guide for a valuation. The property may have been purchased by a certain individual who was especially desirous of having the property as

being most suitable to him, whereas its real value to anyone else might be proportionately diminished. In the valuation of large estates a large margin of difference may often be expected between the valuer for the vendor and the valuer for the purchaser, either of whom has been guided by divergent considerations. The valuer must take into account prospective competition in valuing land for building lots or for allotments. Experience will add weight to a valuer's judgment. In dealing with land he is dealing with a very uncertain commodity. Locality, social advantages, quality of soil, prevalent rent, expenses of maintenance, and a hundred and one other circumstances, will go to determine the value of a piece of property. At the same time the valuer is not, by any means, left wholly in the dark as to the principles of valuation. With regard to freehold, he may calculate that it should yield from 3 to 4 per cent. From the rental, deductions must be made varying from 5 to 10 per cent. The auctioneer, in his capacity of valuer, has every description of property brought within the sphere of his valuing operations, such as crops, timber, pictures, books, goodwill of a business, &c. Some valuers specialise in different departments of business. Insurance is becoming another favourite branch of business with auctioneers, both for life and against fire; shipping insurance also occupies their attention under this head; the disposal of ships and brokerage come within the range of their widespreading operations.

The other duties of surveyors will include distraints for rent, making inventories as to fixtures whether on behalf of landlord or tenant, surveying ancient lights and boundaries, letting and management of closes, pasture land and arable, arbitration, collection of rents and tithes, &c.

It is also of great advantage for a would-be surveyor to pass the examinations of the Sanitary Institute, particulars of which can be obtained at 74A, Margaret-street, London, W.

II.—His Qualifications.

These must be as varied as his duties. Good business capacity, versatility of speech and action, keenness in gauging the value of an article, smartness, and generally a taste for this avocation. A legal mind, displaying an appreciation of nice points of law,

is necessary to the successful auctioneer. He is continually brought into contact with solicitors. He has himself sometimes to draw instruments in a technically legal manner and in the phraseology of the lawyer. His business has indeed a quasi-legal character. He will require also much delicacy and tact. His clients will be men of very different strata in society. He must cultivate a gentlemanly but at the same time a good-humoured genial manner, for manner and style mean a great deal to an auctioneer both in his private and public business. He must prove himself a man of steady application to his work, and of sound business habits. His knowledge must be cosmopolitan, even if somewhat superficial. Property of all kinds comes under his purview. Details of agriculture and of land property must be familiar to him; he must be a good judge of farming as well as of land; he must know good from bad; he must keep his eyes open to the advantages or disadvantages of the local situations of property. He must have some practical experience regarding cattle and live stock. Indoors as well as in the farmyard the auctioneer must be conversant with the names and descriptions of the articles he is called upon to schedule. In the large family mansion he should know the uses and qualities of every stick of furniture, the epochs and places in which they were manufactured. As surveyor he will have to parcel out land into lots, and in doing so judgment and experience will be demanded. He should be something of a lover of books without being a bookworm. If he wishes to specialise in any subject he can do so, but on no account should he allow this specialism to draw him away from his general business, which will undoubtedly prove more lucrative in the end. All particulars of sale are not alike, and, as already noticed, a great advantage may be scored by sufficiently telling points in the articles for sale being emphasized by the auctioneer in his advertisement.

With regard to pictures he must possess some general knowledge of the "Masters," and not suppose, as has been done, that "Pinxit Jones" means "Jones after Pinxit." He will have to know something about different kinds of old china, Dresden from Worcester, and Wedgwood from both. In valuing or cataloguing plate he must have had some practical experience. A knowledge of the broad features of architecture, and of its

great epochs, will stand him in good stead in describing some old mansion which may be reduced to come under the hammer.

And then at the sale he will need all his resources if he is to prove himself a model auctioneer. Nerve and coolness in the presence of the crowd are required; no hesitation in speech, no hesitancy of manner, for these will never commend his marketable property to a critical public. He is surrounded by men in his own business, as smart as, some of them may be smarter than he.

Presence of mind, shrewdness in seeing just the drift of the bidders' minds, keenness in seizing the exact moment for spurring their lagging energies, calmness when he finds that the sale is in full swing, and that things are going merrily, that there is a fierce hand-to-hand contest being waged by two eager bidders, all these qualifications are necessary. No mean ability is required for this work, which needs a good all round man with diversified abilities. Then there is the routine work of the office, and private and confidential dealings with vendors and clients of different kinds, in all of which great tact and readiness of resource will be required. It would seem as though an auctioneer must have born in him the requisite stuff and grit necessary for this Profession. The studious lad, who is very quiet and reserved and cannot say "bo" to a goose, had certainly better not enter this line of business, for he will not have to deal with a set of geese but with some very cute and clever dealers in the crowd before him. He will need all his wits if he is to succeed. The auctioneer above all must be a man of individuality; he must have an independent spirit of his own, although, in another respect, he is merely a go-between; but he is a go-between for a purpose, and on his individuality the realisation of that purpose in no slight measure depends. There is, however, this advantage about the business, that any promising lad with very little book-learning, and who shows prudence and versatility coupled with a desire to make his way in the world, may become a successful auctioneer.

Further, a readiness of speech, volubility, in short, earnestness, persuasiveness, attractiveness of manner, a good voice, naturalness in speaking, powers of concentration of all his

energies on the sale in hand, will complete the qualifications necessary for a successful auctioneer.

III.—How to Enter the Profession.

I shall say but very little upon this head, as there is very little to be said; success in the business is so intimately connected with the practical working of it that, once a lad is in the office, all that remains for him is to devote all his energies to the walk of life in which he has engaged. But a parent will want to know, How am I to get my boy into an auctioneer's office? This is certainly where the shoe pinches. There are but three ways of doing so. First, have you any personal influence with any auctioneer, land surveyor, valuer, house and estate agent? have you any relative engaged in the business? Or does any of your relatives know a friend so occupied? Or, if he does, is he only anxious to get his own son in and keep yours out? If you can secure an entrance into some good firm in this way, well and good. If not, you must try the second string, which is to approach a firm of auctioneers with your son and a premium; what the premium will be will rest very much with the firm. If he could be taken for a month on trial so as to find out what he is fit for, and whether he is fit for auctioneering, it might, if he proved a satisfactory subject for the business, have the tendency to reduce the premium somewhat. Otherwise, it will range from 100 to 300 guineas. In the country, however, other arrangements might be made, where the auctioneering business was only a small one. There is a third course open to the boy, but it is a precarious one, and that is, for him to enter an auctioneer's office in the lowest grade as office-boy, and gradually to work his way upwards. This would obviate the necessity for a premium, but of course promotion would be slow, and the boy's fortune would depend entirely upon his smartness, and upon the adaptibility for the business that he might show when entrusted with any duty above his ordinary routine work. In any case, however, the boy who enters the profession will need to study both in the world of books and in the world of men and matters: he will need to keep his eyes open, to let nothing escape him, to pick up all the experience he can, if he would ensure success. At fifteen or sixteen a lad should make a start in this line.

IV.—Prospects.

A young fellow on entering an auctioneer's office will spend a year at least in learning the details of the business. The emolument received will vary according to the class of business and the terms on which the novice enters the firm, in some cases the stipend being fixed, in others perquisites being obtained in the shape of a proportion of the commissions on sales and valuations. An auctioneer is paid either by the vendor or purchaser. There seems to be no fixed legal charge, but auctioneer's custom is law.

I insert the scale of allowances under the Bankruptcy Act, 1883 and 1890, to Brokers, Auctioneers, and Accountants, as fixed by an Official Order dated December 18th, 1890. These charges are liable to reduction or increase by agreement with the Official Receiver.

I.—*Brokers' Allowances.*	£	s.	d
For inventory, only, of chattel property, and one copy (not exceeding 5 folios)	0	10	6
For every additional folio beyond 5 and up to 20, and for one copy...	0	1	6
For each folio above 20, and one copy	0	1	0

For inventory and valuation of chattel property:—

On the first £100	$2\frac{1}{2}$ per cent.
On the next £400...	$1\frac{1}{4}$ „
Above £400 up to £10,000	1 „
Above £10,000	$\frac{1}{2}$ „

(*a*) In addition the broker shall be entitled to railway fare or cab hire actually paid, if the distance exceeds one mile, but when beyond five miles the amount shall be in the discretion of the Taxing Officer, but shall not exceed the actual expense of travelling.

(*b*) In a case where an order has been made for summary administration, 3-5ths only of the percentages for inventory and valuation shall, in the absence of special agreement, be allowed.

II.—*Auctioneers' Charges.*

For sales by private contract, based on the valuation, half above charges for inventory and valuation. For sales by auction, in addition to such out-of-pocket expenses as may be sanctioned at the time by the Official Receiver.

Of chattel property:—

On first £500	5 per cent.
Above £500 to £1000	4 „
Above £1000	2½ „

Of estates, freeholds, &c., including prior valuations, for determining amount of reserve bids:—

On the first £300	5 per cent.
On the next £1600...	2½ „
Above £1600 up to £5000	1¼ „
Above £5000	1 „

No higher amount may be sanctioned without the leave of the Board of Trade. The cost of surveys and specifications are left in the discretion of the Taxing Officer, and range from £2 to £5.

III.—*Accountants' Charges.*

Where the employment of an accountant has been duly sanctioned, and in the absence of any special arrangement with the Official Receiver, the following charges may be allowed:—

(*a*) For preparing balance-sheet, investigating accounts, &c., when the *principal's* time has been exclusively so employed, for a day of seven hours, from one guinea to five guineas.

(*b*) For chief clerk's time, 10*s.* 6*d.* to £1 11*s.* 6*d.*

(*c*) Other clerks' time, per day of seven hours, 7*s.* 6*d.* to 16*s.* Stationery included in these charges.

This scale of emoluments affords no ground for complaint, juniors as well as seniors and principals being provided for by it.

A previous arrangement is generally made before a sale. If the auctioneer does not sell he frequently gets no fee. One per cent. on certain sales is a common charge. This on large freehold property brings in a very handsome remuneration. But 5 per cent. is a great deal commoner upon the first £500 purchase money, and £2 10*s.* on the remainder. It is impossible to fix any definite age in the auctioneer's career when he is likely to achieve success. Some achieve it comparatively early, others later. No doubt the auctioneer who does the biggest business will continue to draw the most customers Young blood does not usually inspire confidence; older men are

generally sought after. In other branches of commerce young men have the advantage, because so much depends on their "push" and energy, but the auctioneer has to wait for clients to come to him. As we said above, the "born" auctioneer will attract clients, and so will be known as popular in his business; he will form around himself a circle of wealthy vendors, anxious to sell important properties, and to sell them at an advantage. In country towns and villages the local auctioneer will do well, as he will have no competition to suffer from.

As an additional advantage I would point out that in his land agency the auctioneer frequently can obtain possession of valuable property at a very nominal expense. By purchasing on his own account he saves working expenses, and, being a middle-man, in this way is able often to intercept most advantageous bargains.

CHAPTER III.

THE BAR.

THE cost of entering this Profession is less than the Solicitor's, though, as in most professions, a great deal depends upon the student in the management of the funds at his disposal. In the sister profession the Solicitor's £80 has to be paid for stamping the indenture before the student is articled. This expense is saved in being called to the Bar, though, on the other hand, a Barrister's life is more financially precarious than a Solicitor's.

In dealing with the Profession of the Bar I would say that to give advice as to the method and practice of going to the Bar is one thing, and to advise a young man to choose the Bar as his profession is quite another. The latter question is one which the individual must decide for himself, and the responsibility for which he cannot share with anyone else. I can undertake only to point out a few of the considerations which should have weight with him—a few of the dangers which may befall him, and of the advantages which the Profession still retains.

As is well known, a large proportion—perhaps one-third or more—of men who are called to the Bar have no serious intention of endeavouring to earn their living by the practice of their profession. Many of these persons have so large an income that they are under no temptation to try to increase it at the cost of the hard work and application usually necessary for success at the Bar. They seek the designation of barrister from numerous and mixed motives. A country gentleman who is also a Justice of the Peace gains some additional weight at sessions from the fact that, being a barrister, there is a faint presumption in favour of his also having some knowledge of law. Now that to have passed an examination in the elements of criminal law is a necessary condition to "call," this presumption has

some, though not a large, amount of reason to support it. Many bankers, both in London and the country, induce their sons, who are also their partners, to obtain the semblance, if not the reality, of legal knowledge by being what is technically known as being "called." Medical men find that they are more likely to obtain the appointment of coroner if they add to a knowledge of medicine some acquaintance with law, and there are posts in the Army which are more accessible to officers who are also at the Bar. Many men attached to the London Press, and already earning a good income by journalism, are called to the Bar; often without any serious intention or even hope of gaining a practice. Business men, in the strict sense of the word, are sometimes found desirous, for social or other reasons, of enrolling themselves amongst the lawyers; and a large number of Government clerks annually join the Legal Profession. For persons who are mentioned amongst any of the various classes just described, the conditions which will regulate their choice are of a different nature from those to which I propose chiefly to direct attention. At the same time, there are many matters which concern everyone who thinks of going to the Bar; and these, of course, will be discussed with the others.

The normal Bar student is a man who has a reasonable prospect of being supported, without his own exertions, for a certain number of years, at least, after he has been "called." Unless a young man has such a prospect, or possesses abilities far higher than the ordinary, he would be rash to set before himself the Bar as a profession. Of course, no rule is without exceptions, and this rule is subject to a most important exception. If a man has interest, that is equivalent to income—assuming of course that its fortunate possessor has an average amount of brains and industry. By interest is, of course, meant a relationship or friendship with a sufficient number of solicitors such as will ensure its possessor the income necessary for his support. This income can be obtained from the support of a single firm with only an ordinarily large business, and that without the slightest dereliction of duty on the part of the solicitors to their clients. There are many small matters not involving great knowledge or discretion, but simply requiring an average

amount of industry and ability, which nowadays falls to the lot of counsel; not, unhappily, so many as in bygone days, but numerous enough in the course of a large business to provide comfortably for a barrister son or nephew. Upon the manner in which these matters are conducted by the young counsel will depend the question whether he is to succeed, or, in spite of his exceptional advantages, to be a comparative failure. It might be surprising to the outside public to learn how many leaders of the Bar owe their success to this perfectly legitimate species of interest. It would be surprising if it could be told, but, as a matter of fact, it would be simply impossible to make any assertion upon the subject. How many of the sons or nephews of solicitors who have attained success would have done so without their initial advantage no man can possibly say. Many of them in patience and courage would have slowly pushed their way to the front. Others would have taken the legal world by storm through some skilful and fortunate display of ability, a feat even now occasionally accomplished. And it is quite certain that some would never have reached the point at which they stand to-day had it not been for the friendly hands that nursed their practice into a vitality which could support itself. It would be unfair not to add that probably no man, even by interest or otherwise, obtained a large practice at the Bar who had not some sterling qualities of mind and brain to support it. How many men with equal or better qualities have remained in the regions of obscurity for lack of the interest which has helped their fellows is an unsolvable problem.

In considering the claims of the ordinary Bar student, then, we must eliminate the case of the happy possessor of interest with "the other branch." We must take the young man aged, say, twenty-two or twenty-three, of moderate abilities, and with the ordinary amount of industry, who inquires from me as to his chances at the Bar. He wants to know whether he can hope to make an income sufficient to keep himself; and whether, possibly, to allow him to indulge in the comparative luxury of married life. For some years to come, at least, he will not starve, for he has an allowance from his relatives sufficient to support him; but it is expected of him that, sooner or later, he should put himself into a position in which he no longer needs

this allowance. He asks me what are the chances that he can do this at the Bar, having, as he assures me, no special interest of any kind amongst solicitors. My answer to him is plain. Unless in some way or other he can show that he is not *quite* an ordinary young man, he had better give up all thought of the Bar. It is not that he must be very clever, or be very well read, or be very industrious, or be capable of becoming a very good speaker —all or any of these things; but if he is to succeed he must have about him the capacity, in some way or other, of doing some one thing well, and the rest at least passably. Unredeemed mediocrity will most probably condemn a man to failure at the Bar. At the same time it should not be concluded that the only qualities which will serve a man in good stead are those of a showy or brilliant character. Many of the most successful barristers have been, even at the end of their careers, quite unable to make anything like a pleasing or eloquent address. Half the most successful men at the Chancery Bar are indifferent speakers. Nor is a large store of what may be called examination learning necessary to success. Many men whose careers at school, at college, and in the Bar examinations have been really brilliant, have proved utter failures in the more prolonged and serious contest for success in their profession; whilst others who have attained no reputation in early life have been conspicuous successes in their later career. The qualities which are most needed for the career of a barrister are probably common sense, patience, courage, and industry. None of these are innate qualities. All of them, even the last, are properly tested only on a big scale, and are not fairly tried by the examination system. To attain a really first-rate position at the Bar the further requisite of good health and capacity for prolonged strains of work ought probably to be added to the qualities just named, but many men with a very indifferent body are constantly gaining the second rank. To reach even the second rank in such a profession is a prize worth a great deal of striving for.

The surroundings of a barrister's life are pleasant. The Temple or Lincoln's-inn is a nicer workshop than Fleet-street or Cheapside. Though he must be attentive to his business, he is not so hampered as a business man by the necessity of punctual and regular attendance in his chambers. He has no large body

of clerks whom it is necessary for him to superintend, and no complicated and worrying system of accounts to look into. He has a comfortable library close at hand, a common room with its conveniences of literature, refreshments, and a passable place to smoke in, making up altogether a decent little club within a few hundred yards.

The very first step the student must take is to join an Inn of Court. At present there are four of these Inns or societies—viz., Lincoln's Inn, the Inner Temple, the Middle Temple, and Gray's Inn.

The following the Benchers will refuse to admit until they have entirely ceased to act:—Attorney-at-law, solicitor, writer to the signet, or writer of the Scotch courts, proctor, notary public, clerk in Chancery, parliamentary agent, or agent in any court original or appellate, clerk to any justice of the peace, or person acting in any of these capacities: and no clerk to any barrister, conveyancer, pleader, equity draftsman, attorney, solicitor, writer to the signet, or writer of the Scotch courts, proctor, notary public, parliamentary agent, or agent in any court original or appellate, clerk in Chancery, Clerk of the Peace, clerk to any justice of the peace, or to any officer in any court of law or equity, and no person acting in the capacity of any such clerk.

The Masters of the Bench, however, have power under special circumstances (*e.g.*, in the case of a solicitor who has been in practice for five years) to dispense with any preliminary examination.

The following is the admission form at present in use:

I, of aged the son of of , in the county of [*add father's profession, if any, and the condition in life and occupation, if any, of the applicant*] do hereby declare that I am desirous of being admitted a student of the honourable society of for the purpose of being called to the Bar, or of practising under the Bar, and that I will not, either directly or indirectly, apply for or take out any certificate to practise, directly or indirectly, as a pleader, or conveyancer, or draftsman in equity, without the special permission of the Masters of the Bench of the said society.

And I do hereby further declare that I am not an attorney-at-law, solicitor, a writer to the signet, a writer of the Scotch courts, a proctor, a notary public, a clerk in Chancery, a parliamentary agent, an agent in any court

original or appellate, a clerk to any justice of peace, nor do I act, directly or indirectly, in any such capacity, or in the capacity of clerk of or to any of the persons above described, or as clerk of or to any barrister, conveyancer, pleader, or equity draftsman, or of or to any officer in any court of law or equity.

Dated this day of

(Signature)

Appended to it and to be signed by two barristers is the following:—

We, the undersigned, do hereby certify that we believe the above-named to be a gentleman of respectability, and a proper person to be admitted a member of the said society.

Approved, { } Barristers of

{ Treasurer, or, in his absence, by two Benchers.

Moreover, as the Society of Lincoln's-inn require that their students shall not be in trade, those applying for admission to that Inn have to sign a special form.

A Bar student, as most of my readers may be aware, has to eat his way there, or, in other words, to keep twelve terms, that is he must dine in the hall of his Inn a certain number of times during twelve Law terms, which are four in number each year.

The legal year commences with Michaelmas term, but the terms technically known as "law terms," and which the reader will find so called in any ordinary almanac, are not identical with the dining terms of the Inns of Court. The latter always fall within the law terms of the Courts, but they are much shorter. For instance, Michaelmas term in the law court or almanac sense lasts two months save a day or two, but Michaelmas term, so far as it concerns the Bar student, lasts a day or two more than three weeks. The latter commences on the 2nd of November, and ends on the 25th of November. The next term (Hilary) commences on the 11th of January and ends about the 31st of January. The Easter dining term varies with the date of Easter, but usually commences about the middle of April, and being rather longer than the other terms, lasts almost a month. Trinity term begins seven weeks later than Easter and lasts about three weeks. During each of these terms—for

twelve of them—the student must dine a certain number of times in the hall of his Inn.

The student must pass an examination in the four subjects of Roman Law, the law of Real and Personal Property, the Common Law, and certain portions of Equity. A student, however, who has taken a distinctively law degree at a University, is exempted from passing the Roman Law examinations, and so is a student who has obtained one of the studentships in Roman Law and Jurisprudence given by the Council of Legal Education. A student who has taken a satisfactory degree in the law of Real and Personal Property, or who has taken a degree for Bachelor of Civil Law, may also be exempted from passing the Bar examination in that subject. Theoretically the Council reserve to themselves larger powers of granting exemption from the examinations, but, practically, those to which I have referred are alone exercised. The student may present himself for examination in Roman Law at any time after he has kept four terms, but he is not bound to do so before he presents himself for the three latter subjects. For these he may present himself at any time after he has kept nine terms. So that he may either take the Roman Law before or along with the three remaining subjects; but the latter subjects he is bound to take all together. There are very few students who do not avail themselves of the option of dividing the examination into two parts, and they act wisely in thus deciding. It is easier without doubt to adopt this course. The percentage of men who are ploughed for the Bar examinations is tolerably large, and certainly far bigger than the percentage who fail at the pass or honour examinations at Oxford or Cambridge. Until quite recently the difficulty of the Bar examinations was greatly underrated by most students. It used to be assumed that a few months reading was amply sufficient for both examinations, and great has been the annoyance of many men who have too late discerned their mistake. The Roman Law examination is rather more difficult than the pass examination on that subject, either at Oxford or Cambridge. The examination in English Law is decidedly harder than the pass examination for a degree in law at either University. Men who have taken such a degree have been in the habit of considering that a very little additional reading would serve to put them

through the ordeal established by the Council of Legal Education, and they have usually found that they have been mistaken.

As I previously stated, twelve terms must be kept by the student before he is entitled to be called to the Bar. This is, however, subject to the discretion which the Benchers of each Inn may exercise to call a distinguished person after he has kept a lesser number of terms. The discretion is practically only exercised in favour of eminent members of the Colonial Bar, and this usually for some special reason.

For the man who intends to make the Bar a working profession, reading in chambers is essential. It is the practical part of his education, and without it the greatest amount of theoretical or book knowledge is comparatively worthless. It is also advisable for everyone who proposes entering this profession to be a fair speaker. The student should cultivate the art of speaking. It is an excellent plan to join a good debating society, and in other ways to seek opportunities to speak publicly on various subjects, including, of course, debates on questions of law in all its branches, if possible. There are several good debating societies in connection with the Bar. The Hardwicke Society is confined exclusively to barristers and students. The Law Students' Debating Society also meets every Tuesday, for the greater part of the year, in the buildings of the Incorporated Law Society, Chancery-lane, London, and the debates held there are always well attended. Of course, there are many questions to be carefully considered before finally selecting the Bar as a profession, but, in the event of my reader choosing this calling, I would advise him to consult some friend of legal knowledge, if he has one, or obtain an introduction to a member of the profession, who would, I know, advise him for his good. I will conclude this section by saying that

The Bar, like other Professions, if entered with a determination to succeed and given ordinarily favourable surroundings, is undoubtedly an excellent and honourable calling.

CHAPTER IV.

THE CIVIL SERVICE.

THE young men and women of to-day are more fortunate than their parents with regard to Government Appointments. In the good old days Patronage in most, if not all, cases was necessary before an appointment under Government could be obtained. Now most Government situations are open to all. The Civil Service Commissioners deal annually with some 30,000 candidates, many for minor appointments. For the Home Civil Service there are about eighty competitions, the majority of them open. The competitions are held every year, the situations filled range in importance from Sortership and Telegraph Learnerships in the General Post Office, to Class I. Clerkships in the Treasury, Home Office, and Board of Trade.

The Civil Service possesses many advantages not to be found in other callings. The hours are easy, salaries regularly paid, and the social surroundings are good, hence the reason why so many seek to enter this profession.

Of course every candidate before finally deciding to adopt the Civil Service as his or her profession, should carefully consider if they are physically and mentally strong enough to stand these rather severe examinations which often intimidate the most courageous, especially those examinations held for the higher appointments.

If you decide on entering the Civil Service, the next step is to consider in which class of educational tests you would be most likely to succeed, and before doing this the subjects prescribed for each examination should be carefully studied. Having made your selection you should then consider the question of limits of age, and calculate what time is at your disposal before your limit is reached.

The question of age is regarded as a very important element

by the Civil Service Commissioners, and any hitch in this direction may cause serious disappointment to the candidate. He or she must try and produce a certificate of birth. The Commissioners will not accept a certificate of baptism, or other testimony, unless they are first satisfied that a certificate of birth cannot be procured.

Official certificates of *birth* may generally be obtained as follows:—

(*a*) *For persons born in England or Wales since June 30th*, 1837.—From the Registrar-General, Somerset House, London, or from the Superintendent Registrar of the district in which the birth took place.

(*b*) *For persons born in Scotland since December 31st*, 1854.—From the General Register Office, Edinburgh, or from the Registrar of the parish or district in which the birth took place.

(*c*) *For persons born in Ireland since December 31st*, 1863.—From the General Register Office, Dublin, or from the Superintendent Registrar of the district in which the birth took place.

(*d*) *For persons of English, Scottish, or Irish parentage born on board British ships since the dates mentioned in (a), (b), and (c) respectively.*—From the General Register Office, London, Edinburgh, or Dublin, according to parentage.

(*e*) *For persons born in India of European Parents.*—From the India Office, London,

(*f*) *For persons born in Scotland before January 1st*, 1855. From the Parochial Registers, in the custody of the Registrar-General, Edinburgh.

The selection of an appointment in the Civil Service should be made when the candidate first commences his studies, for he may pass an inferior examination and be appointed, and afterwards continue his preparation for a higher appointment. It does not follow for one moment that if you succeed in obtaining an inferior appointment that you are to rest contented and not make an effort to obtain a higher one.

In these circumstances five years may, as a rule, be added to the limit of age. The official hours, being generally from

10 a.m. to 5 p.m., leave time for study. A number of successful candidates in the Second Division and other branches, after being appointed, attend evening classes, or continue their studies under correspondence tutors, and successfully pass the examinations for the Higher Division, Surveyorships of Taxes, Examinerships in the Patent Office, or similar appointments.

I would strongly advise my readers to seek advice from an experienced friend at the beginning, when making a selection of the situations to try for, as this is a matter of great importance, especially with regard to health and fitness for any particular department in this profession.

A prudent candidate before training for the Service would do well to go to a medical man, and ask him to state whether or not he is absolutely sound. Even this may not suffice, for some doctors have an inveterate habit of prophesying smooth things; but if the doctor talks about a slight defect in the heart, which is "quite unimportant," or a "trifling dulness" at the apex of one lung, or some other flaw which is "altogether trivial," the candidate had best beware, and take a second opinion. He should remember that his health may seem sound to-day, but the point is what his prospects are for the years to come. If his heart or lungs are affected, he had better know the fact, for he will then be on his guard, and will seek for a quiet life outside the Civil Service. But on the other hand there are medical as well as other professional men who always take a gloomy view of things, so on that account it does not always do to be satisfied with one opinion.

Good penmanship is of great importance if you are thinking of entering the Civil Service, in fact there are, perhaps, few branches of elementary educational training to which more importance attaches than the art of penmanship. In almost every department of active or business life, a good handwriting is one of the best credentials that can be offered. It is required at the present day from all holding positions, whether high or humble; it is indispensable alike to the legal and mercantile clerk, and in many walks of life any grave deficiency in penmanship will undoubtedly bar the aspirant's way to success.

The Home Civil Service may be said to fall roughly into two great classes, namely Class I. or Upper Division Clerkships, and

the Second Division Clerkships. In respect to the higher grade, only men of exceptional abilities and severe school training can pass the examinations. Not very many of these appointments are filled by open competition.

It is rather different in the Second Division Clerkships. This Division really attracts the bulk of the candidates seeking appointments in the Home Civil Service. About 150 of these situations are filled yearly—17 to 20 is the limit of age. Any youth of ordinary intelligence and with a fair education would succeed in these examinations. When I say fair education, of course I mean, provided he has made a special study of the particular subjects set down for the examinations which he purposes entering. The salary scale in the Second Division of the Civil Service is as follows:—

£70	rising by	£5	annually to	£100
100	„	7 10*s.*	„	190
190	„	10	„	250
250	„	10	„	350

Special reports are required for a clerk's competence and fitness before he is allowed to pass beyond the salaries of £100 to £190, and promotion to the class £250 to £350 is by merit and not by seniority; but a promotion to this last mentioned class is to be made whenever any clerk reaches £250. Second Division clerks are eligible for staff appointments, and may be specially promoted to the Higher Division after eight years' service. Many Civil Servants look forward to these appointments in the Higher Division with keen expectancy, as promotion not only means increased income, but also better social status.

A great number of appointments are made by open competition, also in Excise and Customs. The Excise has the advantage of outdoor instead of indoor occupation. Candidates for Excise must be unmarried. Limits of age 19 to 22. Successful candidates in this department of service receive at the commencement £50 fixed salary and about £30 allowances when on duty. The Assistant's fixed salary of £50 rises by £5 annually to £80, and in the rank above (Second Class Officer) by £7 10*s.* annually to £150, and in the rank next above to £250. After this, further advance is by examination in departmental subjects to the rank of Supervisor, and in the same manner to the rank of Collector.

The examination for Outdoor Officers of Customs is nearly the same as the examination for the Excise; it is suitable for the same class of candidates, the limits of age being 18 to 21. The work is harder, and the prospects not quite so good as in the Excise. An outdoor officer commences at £55 per annum, and rises by annual increments of £3 to £80 in the Second Class, and then from £85 to £100 in the First Class. Outdoor officers are, however, eligible after a comparatively short term of service for promotion to the rank of examining officers by undergoing a competitive examination in departmental subjects. The salaries of examining officers are:—Second Class, £110, rising by £7 10*s.* annually to £220; First class, £230—£10—£340. Promotion to higher posts takes place in the ordinary course.

For those who wish to go abroad there is the India Civil Service, also the India Police Service and India Forest Service.

In addition to these appointments, there are others for which examinations occur at irregular intervals, such as Ceylon, Hong Kong, and Straits Settlements Cadetships. The age limits are over 21 and under 24. Of course very few comparatively care for leaving their own country to go abroad for many reasons, but on the other hand, there are some who prefer Ceylon, Hong Kong, and other parts, to remaining in England.

These appointments are specially tempting, as the salaries are very large in addition to allowances.

Not very long since young women were nearly if not wholly excluded from Government appointments. Now the case is quite different. In our London Post Offices young women are almost exclusively employed, and every day increases the number of lady clerks employed under Government. Some time since a leading daily paper discussed in its columns the question as to whether women clerks were as efficient as men in Post Offices. Several of the correspondents contended that women evaded responsibility, but the fact that they have found such favour with the postal authorities somewhat disproves this theory.

There are four classes of appointments open to girls, viz., Female Clerkships, Telegraph Learnerships, Female Sorterships, and Typewriterships.

The Female Clerkships in the Savings' Bank and other

branches of the Post Office in London, Dublin, and Edinburgh are good appointments, and are much sought after. Female Telegraphists and Sorters are also appointed by open competitions, which are largely attended.

The limits of age are 18 and 20 years. The salary commences at £65 per annum, and rises by annual increments of £3 to £100. On promotion to the First Class the salary commences at £110, and rises to £130. Clerks are eligible for promotion to the higher posts.

The subjects of Examination are:—Handwriting, Dictation, Arithmetic (Elementary and Advanced), Composition, Geography, and History.

To my young lady readers who for want of means or for other reasons do not feel able to satisfy the demands of the Civil Service Commissioners, I would say that outside Government Offices a very large number of lady clerks find employment. The firm that most largely employs women clerks is the Prudential Life Assurance Company, Holborn. The salary is about £30 a year at first, but is raised by £10 each of the two succeeding years, and afterwards by sums in accordance with the value of the clerk's services. Lady clerks, I am told, are remarkably well treated at this establishment.

Candidates are required to be the daughters of professional men, and to have an ordinary English education. At the banks of Messrs. Rothschild, St. Swithin's-lane, and Messrs. Baring, Bishopsgate-street, London, women are employed as Coupon Sorters, at salaries of from 15*s.* to 25*s.* weekly. Good personal references are required. Women are also employed in many offices, including some newspaper offices. The most valuable qualifications for these appointments is a knowledge of shorthand and typewriting.

For further information with respect to the Civil Service and its Examinations I would advise my readers to purchase the following very useful book entitled "Special Hints to Civil Service Candidates," by G. E. Skerry, M.A., F.R.G.S., F.R.S.L., published by the Civil Service Press, 67-69, Chancery-lane, W.C., in which they will find all the information they require.

CHAPTER V.

THE CLERICAL PROFESSION.

This profession, so far as its aims or *raison d'être* are concerned, stands on a higher platform than any of the other avocations treated of in this Primer. The clergyman exists ideally, that is, he should exist, for the spiritual welfare of those living in the parish over which he may be appointed as vicar, or in which (if he be a curate) his sphere of labour may lie. The chief part of his occupation must be directly spiritual work as summed up in the words of the ordination service, "to be Messengers, Watchmen, and Stewards of the Lord; to teach, and to premonish, to feed and provide for the Lord's family; to seek for Christ's sheep that are dispersed abroad." But although the calling has essentially a religious end in view, it would be idle and foolish to deny that it has much in common with other professions. Some persons (very good, but very badly informed) talk as if ministers of religion ought not to be classified under the head of a profession at all, just because their duties are so largely spiritual. But practical men must regard the matter from a professional, or so-called worldly, standpoint, without in a single degree detracting from the lofty nature of the clergyman's duties. However, the clerical is acknowledged on all hands as one of the Professions, and I shall set before those whose hearts are turned in this direction a few useful suggestions, (1) as to the qualifications for this exalted office; (2) as to the mode of obtaining admission to Holy Orders; and (3) as to the prospects of work, of remuneration, and of promotion. I shall here deal only with the ministry of the Established Church.

I.—As to Qualifications.

These may be classed under three heads. It is really indispensable that every candidate for Holy Orders should examine

himself with reference to these pre-requisites. Of course, they are not all of equal value, but as they are nearly all capable of cultivation, great care should be bestowed on seeking to rise to the standard here laid down.

(*a*) The *spiritual* qualifications. These are essential, but in themselves they do not fit a man for the ministerial office. A man may be a saint with a single eye to God's glory and the extension of Christ's kingdom, and yet he might make a very poor clergyman indeed. On the other hand, a man might possess many natural endowments, and yet if he did not possess the one thing needful, he could not enter into his spiritual ministrations with any heart, unless he had first of all proved their value to his own soul. There ought to be a sense of indebtedness in the heart of every candidate for Orders, indebtedness to the Redeemer for His Life laid down, and an earnest desire in return to spend and be spent for Him. Without this no ministry will be successful.

(*b*) The *moral* qualifications. Foremost amongst these we must place *honesty of purpose*, sincerity. The clerical profession should not be regarded as an "easy berth," or sinecure. The clergyman's work is never done. Even if the parish be a small rural one, he may not rest content till he has so found his way into the hearts of his people that he can speak to them face to face about their inner life. He needs, therefore, *sympathy*; without it his work will be largely unsuccessful. He must listen to the simple annals of the poor as he goes from cottage to cottage or house to house: and he must listen with mind and ears open. Fathers and mothers, both rich and poor, will tell him the faults and foibles and good points in their children's characters: his advice will be often asked: it must never seem to him a trouble to give it. Sympathy he must have. And *tact* as well, which is the shrewder side of sympathy. The clergyman will become the confidant of many troubled and anxious souls in his parish and congregation; he must be discreet and keep locked in his own bosom the confidences which have been entrusted to him. He must remember that the parson is criticized far more severely than members of any other profession, not that this is right, but it is so as a fact. Some people allow some slight omission on his part or some brusqueness of manner towards

them to rankle in their breasts for years: such persons are very easily offended, and leave a church for very slight reasons. The utmost tact, therefore, as well as the most refined delicacy of feeling, is required in dealing with the parishioners. The clergyman must "become all things to all men" in the best sense of those words. Again, a minister of the Established Church cannot hope to be successful unless he has cultivated a spirit of deep *humility*, no less than absolute proofness against taking offence. "He that would be chief amongst you" (the *parson* or *person*, that is, chief person of the parish) "let him be your minister," or servant. Pride must be eschewed, anything approaching the spirit of sacerdotalism, or the "lording it over God's heritage," as the Apostle has it, is fatal to the peace of a parish, and is diametrically opposed to the truest and noblest traditions of parochial life as affected by the National Church.

Moreover, a clergyman must be not easily offended; he must be like love,

> "Not soon provoked, however stung and teased,
> And, if perchance made angry, soon appeased;
> He rather waives than will dispute his right,
> And, injured, makes forgiveness his delight."

I have known clergymen who seemed always to be at loggerheads with a considerable number of their people because they could not agree with them on some point of doctrine or of administration. A coolness has sprung up, the rift has grown wider, and it has become increasingly difficult to exert any influence under such circumstances. In short, we may sum up the moral qualifications for this office in the advice of St. Paul to Timothy and Titus in the Pastoral Epistles.

(*c*) Then follow *educational* qualifications. The clergyman of the Established Church is expected to be a man of more than average education. Although he may only have taken a pass degree at his University, be it Oxford or Cambridge, he should nevertheless, in general knowledge and love of literature, especially in its more serious branches, show himself above the average passman. Nothing comes amiss to him in any branch of sound learning. The classics, mathematics, logic, philosophy, including ethics, metaphysics, and sociology, modern languages, history, geography, even the literature of all lands and epochs

not forgetting his own, may all be subordinated to the work of his sacred profession. They may all serve as means to the one great end of extending the influence of the Church of Christ. The opportunity is often presented to the minister of the Gospel of exciting an interest in sacred subjects in the heart of some parishioner who so far has been engrossed in some literary hobby. At the same time, the clergyman, like all lovers of learning, will derive untold profit, as well as pleasure, for himself; his views will be broadened, his vocabulary increased and refined. The value of such training has been one of the most conspicuous features in the history of the Church of England. Until comparatively recent years, graduation at either of the Universities of Oxford or Cambridge was well nigh essential to admission to Holy Orders; and, even now, most of the Bishops make no secret of their preference for 'Varsity men. And rightly so, for a three years' course in such cities of books, if duly appreciated and wisely used, has tended to give that cultured tone and literary refinement for which the clergy of the Establishment have been so justly renowned.

(*d.*) *Theological* qualifications. A taste (if I may so speak) for the highest of the sciences, the First Philosophy (as it was called by Aristotle) is absolutely essential for the ministerial profession. Theology, or the science of God, and all that concerns God and His manifestation of Himself to the world, is the minister's stock-in-trade. Without it he is as a pedlar without his pack, or a merchant without capital, or a captain without a ship. How can a clergyman hope to succeed in his calling, especially if his congregation be an educated one, versed in the literature of the day, unless he shall be able to meet all the current objections to positive or dogmatic belief, or if unable to meet them (for some objections from the nature of the case cannot be met) at least to show, as Bishop Butler has done in his famous "Analogy of Religion to the Constitution and Course of Nature," that the probabilities are in favour of revealed religion. Agnosticism must be faced and driven from its so-called neutral territory and forced from its apparent halting between two opinions, and shown that "he that is not with us is against us." I shall give lists of books useful to the student when describing the *modus operandi* for entering the ministry.

The Bible, the book of books, is regarded by all the bishops as the most important subject. Nothing can countervail ignorance of this volume, which is the pastor's *vade mecum*, his theological handbook. The various divisions of theology may be styled (1) *exegetical*, which is concerned with the explanation of Scripture, (2) doctrinal, (3) pastoral, (4) homiletical, which deals with the application of Scripture truths and texts to daily life, preaching forming the main section of it, (5) critical, dealing with the structure, history and text of the books of the Bible, (6) patristic, or the writings of the Greek and Latin Fathers of the Church. (7) Ecclesiastical history. Of course, under these different heads will be included that vast rich mine of theological treasures, the standard works of the Divines of the Reformed Church of England.

(*e*) *Physical* qualifications.—In a large parish the physical strain upon the parson is very considerable. He is continually "at it," his work is more diversified than in any other calling, his correspondence, relief work, securing hospital and surgical letters, visiting the sick and the whole, day school and Sunday school work, and last but not least, preparation for Meetings, Pulpit, Platform, and Press, are just some of the multifarious subjects that absorb his time and attention; there are also many sudden calls from outside and inside the parish, private Baptisms, and surplice duty involving marriages, funerals, churchings, baptisms, which in some parishes are very numerous, but in others very few and far between. No clergyman should shirk any amount of labour, but every curate before agreeing to take up work in a hard parish should sit down first and count the cost, and see whether he has the physical strength necessary to carry out the onerous duties that will devolve upon him. Again, some parishes are lighter than others. I have known a parish with 22,000 manned or quartermanned by a Vicar, one Curate, a Scripture Reader, and Mission Woman, and another parish of 7,000 with Vicar, Curate, Scripture Reader, City Missionary, Nurse, Bible Woman, and Mission Woman. The disparity between the work devolving on the curate in these two parishes respectively would be obvious. To turn to another physical requirement, a good, clear, strong voice is very helpful, as people value a clear articulation in the reading of the prayers,

lessons, and in the preaching of the sermon. How many have complained to me that they could only hear part of a sermon, that the vicar or curate drops his voice, that it was a strain on them to listen. By all means husband your voice, but do not be led away by some over zealous clerical friend who will try to persuade you that you need not raise your voice to be heard. In a large London church your voice requires to be as clear as a bell, your articulation fine and distinct, your voice raised even to loudness; better be heard too well than not at all. Cultivate your voice so that it may become strong. Emphasize the important words in reading, not, of course, to a self-conscious extent, although you may not be able to help being conscious of the fact that you are reading with emphasis. Be anything but dreamy, drowsy, monotonous, hurried, or seemingly indifferent. I know a clergyman to whom reading the prayers is a greater strain than preaching. Many will give you contrary advice, but the laity are most edified by an emphatic and pronounced delivery. It will be a physical strain, but never mind that. Such are some of the qualifications required by a candidate for Holy Orders.

II.—Mode of Obtaining Admission to Holy Orders.

I have already dwelt upon the fact that the academical training at Oxford or Cambridge is most useful to candidates for Holy Orders; indeed the majority of the clergy have received their education at one or other of these two ancient Foundations. But we must not suppose (as so many do who know nothing of the course of study at the Universities) that the instruction at these Universities is of a professional character, so that everyone who passes through the curriculum that obtains there is *ipso facto* prepared for the work of the ministry. This, of course, is very far from being the case in the present day; probably not one in five of the members resident in either University at a given time will take Holy Orders. The advantages of the training, therefore, are largely extra-theological; they are literary, social, educational, in the most comprehensive sense of that term.

The first question that a parent asks himself is, What will the expense be of maintaining my son at either of these Universities? There are two main schedules of expenses:

(1.) As a non-Collegiate student; that is, an undergraduate who does not belong to any College or Hall, but who resides in lodgings specially licensed by the authorities. The advantage of this is that the student can regulate his own expenses. He has no college charges to pay; he can live, say, on 30*s.* a week, or £12 a term. This for the three terms in the year would mean about £40, so that, altogether, if the vacations were spent at home, the output would not involve more than £60—this, of course, by the strictest economy.

(2.) As a Collegiate student, that is, one belonging to a College or Hall, the expenses will vary according to the college; by strict economy, and by denying oneself many of the social advantages of undergraduate life, the annual expenditure, including vacations, could be met by £160 at the most expensive colleges, and by £120 at the least expensive. Tuition fees range from £20 to £25, college charges from £12 to £25 a year, rent from £10 to £18, whilst buttery and kitchen charges vary considerably, a tariff being allowed for dinner in some colleges, whereas 2*s.* 6*d.* is the minimum at others; no charge being made at some colleges when the undergraduate absents himself from dinner, whereas, at other colleges, he can only do so twice a week, and that only after giving notice in the early part of the day. At Keble a fixed charge of £81 per annum is made: this includes board, rent, tuition, and establishment (or college) charges. After a comparison of the expenses at different colleges, the conclusion I come to is that, at the lowest £80 a year for those residing in college is necessary to cover college expenses, and at the more expensive colleges £100. Where one college has a low charge under one head, it sometimes raises the fee under another head; of course, there is hardly any limit in the direction of lavish expenditure to which a young man may not go if he has the means and the inclination.

From the question of expenditure we turn to the examinations required of an aspirant for the degree of Bachelor of Arts. There are two standards of examination for this degree both at Oxford and Cambridge, one called a Pass, the other an Honours Degree. The pass degree may be obtained by persevering study by anyone of average ability who has been well grounded in mathematics and Greek and Latin; some have even

gone up to the Universities knowing very little of either of these two languages, but by persistent application and careful direction in their studies have been enabled to pass the required examinations. At Oxford the honours subjects in the first and second public examination are largely taken up by scholars or exhibitioners of the colleges, but a very fair and gradually increasing number of commoners also enter for these examinations. The fullest information regarding the Oxford and Cambridge careers can be obtained in the former case from the University Calendar, Statuta Universitatis Oxoniensis, and the Student's Handbook to the University of Oxford; in the latter case from The University Calendar and the Student's Guide to the University of Cambridge. Three years residence is required at Oxford, and a similar period at Cambridge before taking the B.A. degree.

At Dublin University residence is not required, but the undergraduate must attend at Dublin for the examinations. At the same time a candidate for Holy Orders is usually required to produce certificates of having attended Divinity Lectures for six terms, that is, for two years. This, of course, involves residence; but it would not be difficult for a candidate for Holy Orders who had obtained a Dublin degree, to secure Ordination from a Bishop. All particulars about the Dublin curriculum will be found in the Dublin University Calendar, published annually by Messrs. Longmans and Co., London.

The University of Durham requires a two years' residence for eight months in each year. There are several Foundation Scholarships and Exhibitions, from £50 downwards. Full information is to be obtained from the Durham University Calendar, published by Andrew and Co., Durham.

The University of London. Residence is not required in order to obtain a Degree at this University. Application for particulars may be made to the Registrar, University of London, W. There is also a University Calendar published.

Theological Colleges.

I now leave the Universities with their degrees, and turn to the Theological Seminaries, a creation of the present century, which aim at supplying the lack of practical pastoral experience,

which formed and still forms (so far as the curriculum of the University is concerned) one of the most serious deficiencies in the Theological School at Oxford and Cambridge. Residence for a year or two will often form a helpful preparation for parish work. Wycliffe Hall at Oxford and Ridley Hall at Cambridge have both met a felt want in the Universities, and have turned out some well-equipped men for the work of the Ministry. I shall merely give a list of these establishments, stating from whom enquiries may be made, as follows:—

For St. Bees College apply to the Rev. the Principal, St. Bees College, *viâ* Carnforth.

For St. Aidan's, Birkenhead, to the Rev. the Principal at that address.

For the Queen's College, Birmingham, to the Rev. the Warden at the College.

For Chichester Theological College, to the Principal at the College.

For Gloucester, to the Rev. the Principal at the Theological College, Gloucester.

For Cuddesdon, to the Rev. the Principal, Cuddesdon College, Wheatley, near Oxford.

The London College of Divinity, Rev. C. H. Waller, St. John's Hall, Highbury, N. Especially for Evangelical Churchmen.

St. David's College, Lampeter, the Rev. the Principal, Lampeter.

Lichfield Theological College, the Rev. the Principal, at the College.

The Lincoln Scholæ Cancellarii, apply to the Rev. the Chancellor, the Chancery, Lincoln.

King's College, London. Apply to the Rev. Dr. Wace, at the College, Strand, W.C.

Salisbury Theological College. The Rev. the Principal at the College.

Wells Theological College. The Rev. the Principal at the College.

I should say that some of these colleges have a distinctly party bias, and those of extreme views of an advanced character should be avoided.

I will now suppose that the candidate for Orders has either

taken his degree at one of the Universities, or resided for the required number of terms at one of the theological colleges, or that he has done both. He is now ready to offer himself to the bishop in a formal manner. This he does by making a written application to the bishop of that diocese in which he is desirous of being ordained not less than three months, and in some cases not less than six months, before the ordination. This application should contain the age, university, college, and degree of the applicant, together with the names of three eminently respectable clergymen or laymen, or both, to whom confidential inquiries may be addressed.

In reply the bishop will probably send a paper of Instructions to Candidates, and appoint a day for an interview either with himself or one of his chaplains. A preliminary examination in the Scriptures and Church History and in the Greek Testament may take place. If accepted, the candidate will then be required to pass the bishop's examination for Deacons' Orders, but there are certain parts of this examination which he may be excused if he has passed the preliminary examination of candidates for Holy Orders which is held twice a year about Easter and October at different centres determined by the council. The regulations and examination papers in connection with this examination may be obtained from Messrs. Deighton, Bell & Co., of Cambridge, for thirteenpence by post.

A month before the Ordination certain papers will have to be sent to the bishop's secretary or some other responsible person charged to receive them: the exact terms of those papers will be given in the Paper of Instructions: the said papers should be written out and the signatures duly affixed. The papers will be the following:—

(1.) Certificate of Baptism extracted from the Parish Register: or if this cannot be produced a statement from the father or mother of the candidate, certifying that the candidate has been baptized: or, failing them, the affidavit of some competent witness to that effect.

(2.) Certificates of having attended the Divinity Lectures of the Regius Professor at Oxford or Cambridge and of one of the other Professors: or the Divinity Testimonium from Dublin or Durham, or the usual certificate from a Theological College:

and for those who have passed the Cambridge "Preliminary Examination" a certificate to that effect.

(3.) College Testimonials.

(4.) The "Si Quis" to be read in Church one month at least before the day of Ordination and attested by the officiating Minister and one Churchwarden.

(5.) Testimonial to be signed by three beneficed clergy (the incumbent, who nominates, not being one of them) and if from another diocese, to be countersigned by the Bishop of that diocese.

(6.) A Nomination to a Curacy.

I must now say a few words about the subjects for examination. The candidate should read carefully Article xxiii., the Preface to the Ordination Services and the Canons xxxiii. on Securing a Title to a Parish, that is, on the necessity of being nominated to a definite sphere of work before being ordained; xxxiv. on the Limit of Age, 23 for Deacons' and 24 for Priests' Orders, xxxv. on the Necessity for Examination, xxxvi. on the Necessity for a License, xxxvii. on the Necessity for Assent to the Thirty-nine Articles and Book of Common Prayer.

The *subjects* for examination will vary somewhat in each diocese, but only slightly: there will be greater variation in the books recommended for study; but the following is a tolerably representative list of both subjects and books under the various headings:—

I.—*Holy Scripture:* most important subject.

(*a*) *Old Testament.* A knowledge of the purpose and contents of each Book; the meaning and context of certain selected passages; the history of the Canon, and some critical questions; special examination in two or three books.

Books.—Maclear's Class Book of Scripture History, Wordsworth's Commentary, The Speaker's Commentary, Smith's Bible Dictionary, Blunt's Scriptural Coincidences, Perowne on the Psalms, Delitsch on Isaiah, Girdlestone's Synonyms of the Old Testament, Gesenius's Hebrew Grammar and Lexicon.

(*b*) The New Testament in Greek; selected books; knowledge of whole.

(*c*) History of the English Bible.

Books.—Alford's Greek Testament, Moulton's Edition of Winer's Grammar of the New Testament, Trench on the Parables and Miracles, Farrar's Life of Christ, Conybeare and Howson's Life and Journeys of St. Paul, Paley's Horæ Paulinæ, Stanley's Sinai and Palestine.

II.—*Doctrine and Church Government.*

(*a*) The Thirty-nine Articles, *thoroughly* in English and Latin.

(*b*) Pearson on the Creed.

(*c*) Hooker's Ecclesiastical Polity.

Books.—Browne on the Thirty-nine Articles, Boultbee on the Thirty-nine Articles, Hardwick's History of the Thirty-nine Articles, Pearson on the Creed, Hooker's Ecclesiastical Polity, Maclear's Introduction to the Creeds.

III.—*The Book of Common Prayer.*

(*a*) Contents and History.

Books.—Procter's History of Book of Common Prayer, Evan Daniels on the Prayer Book, Cardwell's History of Conferences.

IV.—*Evidences.*

Books.—Butler's Analogy, Whately's Evidences of Christianity, Paley's Evidences, Blunt's Undesigned Coincidences.

V.—*Church History.*

(*a*) Knowledge of leading persons and events in Christian Church.

(*b*) Special knowledge of first four centuries.

(*c*) Period of the Reformation.

(*d*) History of the Church of England.

Books.—Robertson's Church History, Fisher's History of the Church, Blunt on the First Three Centuries, Blunt's English Reformation, Merle D'Aubigné's History of the Reformation, Perry's History of the Church of England, Short's History of the Church of England, Fuller's Church History of Britain, Curteis' Bampton Lectures.

VI.—*Pastoral Work.*

Books.—Baxter's Reformed Pastor, Blunt's Parish Priest, Burnet's Pastoral Care, Oxenden's Pastoral Office, Herbert's

Country Parson, Evans' Bishoprick of Souls, Burgon on the Pastoral Office.

VII.—*Latin.*

A knowledge of Latin is prescribed by the rubric, and should be sufficient to enable the candidate to make use of theological treatises by any of the fathers in that language.

VIII.—*Preaching.*

Candidates will be expected to write a sermon, to read aloud some portion of the service, or of Scripture, or of their sermon.

Such are the main subjects of the examination, and the leading books under each head. No candidate who has mastered these books, all of them deeply interesting, and whose mind has been well stored with the Scriptures, can fail to pass the examination. I think that a sufficiently lucid account has been given of the way in which to proceed to the assumption of Holy Orders.

III.—The Prospects.

Under this heading very little need be said. The prospect of work I have already described. In a town parish it is incessant and consequently arduous, and at times almost overpowering; in a country parish the duty of dealing with each individual soul is no less pressing, but some parishes are so small that there is no strain upon the energies of the clergyman arising from overwork. An enthusiastic young clergyman can always find abundant scope for his zeal and devotion to the cause of the sinful, the suffering, and the poor. It is well that he should, in the heyday of his health and enthusiasm, seek a title in a hard parish with a sympathetic vicar.

When we turn to the prospects of remuneration, there is something bright, as well as something gloomy, to report. A curate now is better paid than formerly. From £120 to £140 is quite the ordinary stipend for a curate during his first year, increased by £10 in the second, and, in the case of the lower stipend, yearly by £10, until sometimes £160 or £170 is reached. Senior curates in very large and important parishes get £200. The curate is better off than many country vicars.

With regard to Incumbencies, it may be said, without fear of contradiction, that there are now very few fat livings left, owing to agricultural depression and the consequent failure of income

from tithe and glebe. Attempts are being made in some dioceses to raise all the incumbents' stipends to £200 or £250 a-year, and satisfactory progress has been made in this direction; but this is not a very lucrative emolument for a man with a wife and family, and in the face of the many parochial claims, in satisfying which the vicar is expected to take the lead. As to promotion, an earnest hard-working curate will probably obtain a living about eight years after his ordination, but not much within this limit: indeed, this is setting the limit at rather a low figure: at the same time there are many vicars who have received their livings from the ages of 30 to 35. But once that age is passed it becomes increasingly difficult to secure a curacy, and by no means easy to obtain an incumbency. There are still a very goodly number of livings from £400 to £500 a year; but the average runs between £300 and £400 and nearer to the former than the latter figure. Of course, no average man without interest need look forward to securing what may be called the "prizes" of the Church, and the value of these must be largely discounted by the innumerable expectations that have to be satisfied by the holders of them.

As to the social prospects of the clerical profession, it is well known that a clergyman is admitted into the best society in virtue of his position as a minister of the Established Church; but let no man who has risen from the "ranks," let no "terræ filius" trade on this, as society knows well how to avenge itself on those who owe their position to their profession rather than to their merits.

Any further information concerning the clerical profession and the value of livings might be obtained from Crockford's Clerical Directory, and as to Ordination from two books, the one entitled "Ordination Questions," published by J. Hall & Son of Cambridge, the other called a "Guide to Ordination," by the Rev. T. W. Wood, and published by Bemrose & Sons, of London.

CHAPTER VI.

THE ENGINEERING PROFESSION.

THE achievements of engineering in the past give promise of even greater possibilities in the future. Every year sees new discoveries made by scientific men of which the engineer takes advantage, and which he turns to practical use. The engineer might be styled the scientist in practice. He puts into a concrete tangible form the abstract discoveries of the investigator of Nature in his laboratory. It is the engineer's office to regulate and develop the undeveloped forces of Nature; he exercises a sovereignty over these latent powers, and diverts them to uses conducive to the comfort and (alas!) sometimes to the destruction of society. These functions are highly responsible; so that to become an engineer is not to be regarded in the same light as engaging in the ordinary mechanical trades.

I shall aim at laying down first of all some of the qualifications of this deeply interesting and generally profitable occupation; secondly, the methods by which to enter the Profession; and thirdly, the prospects including the emoluments attaching thereto.

I.—QUALIFICATIONS FOR ENGINEERING.

Average ability must be shown by any youth whose parent or guardian intends him to enter this business. Ability is of different kinds, but a lad below average ability will not make headway in this line. Mechanical genius to a greater or less extent is indispensable. This will often display itself in very early years; the parent should carefully study the seeming bent of his young son's mind, and choose a profession for him in accordance with that bent. If there is absolutely no aptitude shown for mechanics, for the construction of models, for bridging imaginary rivers, or laying down imaginary railroads, and making

imaginary locomotives, your lad had better turn his hand to anything else except engineering, It might, however, be very possible for a youth who had grown up in an engineering centre, and whose thoughts from his earliest days had been directed into that channel, even though he were not naturally endowed with mechanical talent, to rise to some eminence in this calling, provided, of course, that he did not show any positive distaste to the occupation. There is another essential qualification, and that is perseverance, a determination to succeed. It is a great mistake to place a youth in this profession without careful consideration having been given as to his suitability for it. How many careers are blighted, or at least rendered uncomfortable, and less successful than they would have been, had care been taken to direct peculiar talents into the proper groove. Doubtless it is true that engineers (in a lesser degree than poets) are born not made.

Before proceeding further I shall define and distinguish between the branches of engineering. They are Civil, Mechanical, Marine, Military, Mining, Railway and Sanitary; all of which by a somewhat extended use of the term seem to be included under the one head of Electrical Engineering.

The marine and military branches are dealt with under the Army and Navy divisions of this work, the other sections may all be classed under the heads of civil and mechanical engineering.

The works to be undertaken will include railways, tramways, canals, telegraphs, submarine cables, lighting of cities by electricity, mining, electro-plating, the construction according to designs of locomotives and engines of all kinds, and of every variety of machinery and mechanical appliances. In the department of civil engineering the young man's work will differ from that of a mechanical engineer. He is called upon, in the former case, to design comparatively small works of construction, according to some ordinary model well known to those who have served their apprenticeship in the trade. Care and accuracy, of course, are desired, but no heavy demands are made on the genius of the individual. The duties of superintendence and inspection, a knowledge of surveying and mensuration, will be

required of him. Moreover, there are certain moral qualifications, such as integrity and straightforwardness, essential to the civil engineer. He must be above the suspicion of taking bribes or of hiding defects in workmanship. He must be punctual, steady, obliging, conciliatory, but at the same time firm with workmen and contractors, and courteous in dealing with all whose interests may come in contact with his own.

The mechanical engineer, on the other hand, will be kept in the factory to design machinery, often of one set pattern, but which nevertheless is modified by varying improvements from time to time. As the engineer rises in his calling, it is his lot frequently to take in hand monumental works on a magnificent scale; and here, it has been said, Englishmen are behind the foreigners owing to their lack of sound theoretical training. The engineer attached to an influential company is called upon to form estimates as to the cost and revenue of the works contemplated by the company. He must be also a born leader of men, so as to keep his subordinates always in hand, and to avoid friction as far as possible. A knowledge of the properties of the materials used, an eye to prevent waste in the details of the work, and generally a good share of common sense, are additional essentials to success. In this occupation, as in so many others, practice must go hand in hand with theory.

II.—How to Engage in Engineering.

There are three courses open to those desirous of entering this Profession. A youth may either proceed to a technical school, or be apprenticed on leaving his ordinary day school to a firm of engineers, or he may, if time and means will permit, avail himself of a combination of these two courses.

Of course, at a technical school it stands to reason that the advantages for practical work will not be so numerous, or on such a large scale as at engineering works, but even the Technical Institutions give opportunities for practical work, and for testing the results arrived at by theory. At an institution the aim is to inculcate the principles of engineering, and everything is arranged with that idea. But in a workshop, the object is to turn out the largest number of machines at the least cost. Moreover, during apprenticeship, the chance of study and the inclination for it

are unlikely to be found. After a hard day's work from 7 a.m. to 6 p.m. a lad, who has not yet done growing, does not find himself in the mood for application to study.

The conclusion arrived at, therefore, is that a combination of the two methods is to be desired, and, where possible, the course at the technical school should precede the apprenticeship. If the parent or guardian should seek advice from a manager of a firm, or from the president of an institute, he will probably get a different answer in either case, which shows that the union of the two methods is most desirable.

It is most important in electrical engineering that the theory of the craft should be mastered. So important, indeed, that where the choice must lie between apprenticeship or technical instruction, let the latter be preferred at all hazards.

A fair knowledge of mathematics and a taste for them are essential. Modern languages will also be helpful.

If an institute course be selected, particulars may be obtained from the prospectuses of the various institutes, and any further information required would be furnished by the principals of the institutes. The following are the principal technical universities, schools and institutions, with the briefest notes gathered from their prospectuses.

(1) The Yorkshire College, Leeds. For engineering, civil, mechanical, mining, electrical, intended for artisans as well as for students for university degrees, workshops and laboratories. Classes for engineering, physics, freehand and geometrical drawing, book-keeping, shorthand, &c.; practical chemistry; three sessions for engineering students.

(2) Owens College, Manchester. Three years' course. Fee for each year, £3 10*s*., without laboratory courses. There are laboratory courses for definite mechanical tests for the strength of materials and efficiency of machines. Physical laboratory, electrical engineering: fee for the session of five days a week, 17 guineas.

(3) University College, Liverpool. The Walker Engineering Laboratories and Workshop. Courses of mathematics, physics, chemistry in civil, mechanical, electrical engineering: three years for two last-named branches, two years in civil.

These three colleges form the Victoria University; there are

entrance scholarships for engineering students, from £20 to £40 a year.

(4) Sheffield Technical School. Mechanical, metallurgy, laboratory, with complete equipment for analysis of iron and steel. Three years' course: workshops for mechanical engineering, machine and fitting shop, smiths' shop, drawing office, woodwork shop. Prizes: two medals and a premium of £15.

(5) Royal Indian College, Cooper's Hill. For Indian Public Works, telegraph, and forest departments. Three years' course: payment, £183 a year.

(6) University College, Nottingham. Three years' course: workshops, laboratory, foundry, smithy, turning, and erecting shop, dynamo shed.

(7) University College, London. Three years' course: fee, one hundred and eight guineas; laboratory with latest engineering appliances; scholarships.

(8) Manchester Technical School. For students who intend to become engineers, as well as for artisans already engaged in workshops. Rooms for drawing, chemical, and other work; also workshops for wood and iron, thoroughly fitted up. Two years' course: fifteen guineas for year of forty-two weeks.

(9) The Mason Science College, Birmingham. Engineering department, drawing office, engine and boiler house, museum of engineering materials, laboratory, workshop: three years' course; diplomas granted; scholarships.

(10) Bradford Technical College. Three years' course: civil, mechanical, electrical; practical work an especial feature; splendidly equipped workshops, skilled workmen employed. £15 a year for five days a week; £6 for one day a week; evening classes.

(11) University College, Bristol. Three years' course: six months spent in works; special advantages offered by local firms in the way of entrance scholarships to their works. Fees: £20 and £13 for long or short courses.

(12) City and Guilds of London for the Advancement of Technical Education. The Central Institution, South Kensington. Undoubtedly the best technical school in the country. Three years' course: workshop, dynamo room. Fees: £25 a year.

(13) Technical College, Finsbury. Two years' course; day and evening classes.

(14) Durham University College of Science, Newcastle. Three years' course. Fees: £28 per annum.

(15) Heriot-Watt College, Edinburgh. Two years' course: lecture theatres, fitted with the latest conveniences for demonstration; laboratories for every kind of scientific experiment; apparatus of the most recent kind. Two courses, ordinary and honours.

(16) The Electrical Standardizing Institution, Faraday House, Charing Cross-road, W.C. Two years' course, theory and practice combined. Fee: 100 guineas yearly.

(17) The Crystal Palace School of Practical Engineering. Its prospectus states that "the leading object of this school is to prepare students by systematic practical instruction for professional articles, so that on entering an engineer's office or works the pupil may at once be useful to his principal, and enabled to take advantage of the opportunities for learning open to him, having mastered the elementary details of the profession." Two years' course, first year mechanical, second year civil. Fees, first year £52 10*s.*, second year, £63.

(18) Polytechnic School of Engineering, 309, Regent-street, London, W. A very useful institution, where a sound, practical training is given, coupled with sufficient scientific teaching to render a young man capable for employment by a firm. The course may be for either two or three years. Fees, 12 guineas a year.

The above are, we believe, the chief Institutes in the country. As will have been seen, most of them give an insight into the practice of engineering as well as a thorough knowledge of the theory of it. Some railway companies make special provision for students at the Institutes, who come from a distance every day, or nearly every day, by train.

I now pass to the consideration of the other mode of entering the engineering profession, namely, by apprenticeship. Here something may be done by influence. If a relative or friend of a would-be apprentice holds shares in a company, it is then easy to arrange for him to be apprenticed to the firm. Where, however, this is not the case, the premium has to be paid, and the

binding of the apprentice takes place in some such terms as the following:

[*Copy of Indenture.*]

This Indenture WITNESSETH, that

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doth put himself APPRENTICE to . to learn his Art, and with him (after the manner of an Apprentice) to serve from the . until the full end and Term of . years from thence next following to be fully complete and ended: DURING which Term the said Apprentice his Master faithfully shall serve, his secrets keep, his lawful commands everywhere gladly do. Shall do no damage to his said Master nor see to be done of others, but to the best of his power shall let or forthwith give warning to his said Master of the same. Shall not waste the goods of his said Master nor lend them unlawfully to any. Shall not do any act whereby his said Master may have any loss with his own Goods or others, during the said Term, without licence of his said Master. Shall neither buy nor sell, nor absent himself from his said Master's service unlawfully, but in all things, as a faithful Apprentice, shall behave himself towards his said Master and all his during the said Term. And the said his said Apprentice in the art of which he useth, by the best means that he can, shall teach and instruct or cause to be taught and instructed . And for the true performance of all and every the said Covenants and Agreements, either of the said parties bindeth himself unto the other by these Presents.

In Witness whereof the parties above-named to this Indenture interchangeably have put their Hands and Seals the day of . in the Year of our Lord One thousand eight hundred and

Signed, Sealed and Delivered by the above-named }
in the presence of . }

The usual premium is £100 a year. But a parent must exercise great prudence in not trying to secure an easier standard of work for his son than that which is apportioned to other apprentices, who may have paid no premium. The latter frequently turn out better hands than the former, because they are dependent on the favour of the firm, whereas the premiumed apprentices are apt to be spoiled and indulgently treated.

It has been recommended, and with very good reason, that a

month's probation should always be stipulated for before the indentures are signed. The youth would be able to grasp something of the nature of the profession he was about to be bound to, and the guardian as well as the firm could find out how far the youth was suited to the calling.

I give just a few firms who take on apprentices:

(1) The Great Western Railway, at their locomotive works, Swindon. Engine-fitting, turning. Five years; apprenticed between $15\frac{1}{2}$ and $16\frac{1}{2}$; wages given. Premium £25 a year for each of three years. Applications taken in order; some always waiting.

(2) London and North-Western Railway; at engine works at Crewe. Month's trial; premium, £60; wages; no indentures. Apprentices serve till 21 years old, but must serve three years at least; some applicants always waiting.

(3) Kitson and Co., Airedale Foundry, Leeds. Premium, £100. Three years apprenticeship recommended.

(4) Peckett and Sons (locomotive engineers), Atlas Engine Works, Bristol. Premium £100; no salary: excellent shops.

(5) Crompton and Co. Limited, Arc Works, Chelmsford. Month's probation; premium £300; no wages.

(6) Brush Electrical Engineering Company, 49, Queen Victoria Street, London, E.C. Premium £300. Course, three years.

(7) Scott and Mountain, Close Works, Newcastle-upon-Tyne. Premium £250. Three years. Half premium returned in wages. Electrical Engineers.

There are, of course, many other firms who receive apprentices for a lower or higher premium. Applications to them would always receive their consideration.

I cannot leave this branch of the subject without drawing attention to the munificent prizes offered by Sir Joseph Whitworth as a reward for engineering talent. There are no fewer than thirty exhibitions of the value of £50 each, tenable for one year, and four scholarships of £125 a year for three years. They are open to any of Her Majesty's subjects, whether of the United Kingdom, India, or the Colonies. The candidate must not have completed his twenty-sixth year on the 1st of May in the year in which he competes. He must be in sound physical health.

He must also have been engaged in practical work in the workshop of a mechanical engineer, and must have worked for a certain time at the vice and lathe or the forge or the bench. All the qualifying work must have been completed before the 1st of May of the year in which he competes. The fullest particulars and rules as to competition, lines of study, &c., may be obtained from the publishers of the "Prospectus of Sir Joseph Whitworth's Scholarships," Eyre and Spottiswoode, East Harding-street, Fleet-street, E.C., for the sum of 7*d.*

III.—Prospects.

Under this head very little can be said. The future of engineering teems with untold possibilities of work and profit. If the vast interior of Africa is to be opened up it can only be by engineering skill. If the South American Republics are to be civilised the same agency must set to work to develop their resources. If the electric light is to supersede gas, the opportunities for employment in our own country will be legion. From a pecuniary point of view, there is at present something of a depression hanging over engineering. But this is more apparent than real. The market seems to be overstocked, but is not really so. The truth is, that many apprentices have been articled to the profession who ought never to have been bound, as they have little or no aptitude for the work. As to the comparative rapidity of a young man's rise in the profession, so much depends on the young man himself. On the expiration of his articles he will very probably be kept on by the firm to which he was apprenticed, if he has proved himself a valuable apprentice. It is evident from this that a great deal depends on the industry, interest, and capacity exhibited by an apprentice in his work during the whole of his apprenticeship. Once his career is fairly started, the engineer moves steadily on, and having begun with his £120 at the age of 20 or 21 he soon mounts to £200, £250, £300, until he has obtained a position of some independence, when his worth is fixed at £500, £750, or £1000. It is a profession with many prizes and not many blanks for steady and capable men.

CHAPTER VII.

LITERARY.

THE Literary Profession is perhaps the most uncertain and speculative of any that I have mentioned. It includes Historians, Biographers, Novelists, Journalists, Reporters, Correspondents, and a host of others. The literary man to a great extent is like the Poet, Musician, or Painter—born and not made. In it there are no compulsory examinations, and, generally speaking, no reliable or regularly occurring vacancies. Success in it is achieved as a rule by merit and sometimes by unexpected promotion.

The successful literary writer strives to adapt himself in his writings to the public taste, and in that way often makes large sums of money by his works. In this Profession I must content myself by giving you a few hints which will, if appropriated, I hope help you in your literary career. A young man entering this Profession should be well educated, and a knowledge of shorthand would be of great advantage especially in the journalistic department. You must diligently practice *Composition*—that is to say, the correct and pleasing expression of your thoughts in words. I do not mean that you should begin by writing a speech—that comes at the end of your training; but learn first to frame a neat sentence in apt language. Indeed, when you have achieved this, you are almost at the end of your labour. Simple as it seems, here lies all the difficulty. Words; sentences. Who has not words? you say. Who does *not* talk in sentences? I answer by another question; Who *does*? Try it. You are unpractised as yet in composition beyond the writing of a love-letter in bad English. Take your pen and set down upon paper the first half-dozen reflections that come into your mind—no matter what the subject. Now read what you have written. First, examine the words—do they embody precisely

what you intended to say? Are they fit words, expressive words —in brief, the *right* words? You must confess that they are not. Some are altogether wrong; some are vague, some weak, some out of keeping with the subject, some slovenly, some too big, others too small; strong adjectives are used as props to feeble nouns; and do you not see how continually you use three words to clothe an idea which would have been far more effectively conveyed in one?

Then look at your sentences—how crude they are, how shapeless, how they dislocate the thoughts they are designed to embody, how they vex the tongue to speak and grate upon the ear that listens. There is no music, no rhythm, no natural sequence of ideas, scarcely even grammatical accuracy. And mark how the sentences are thrown together without order, severing the chain of thought, this one having little connection with its predecessor and none at all with its successor.

Composition is *an art*, to be learned by labour and self-training, and is not so easy as talking in a smoking-room, with a short pipe to fill up the vacuities in thoughts and words.

Being assured of this by experiment, you will probably feel rather more inclined to make the necessary exertions to acquire an art which must be the foundation of your studies in the Literary Profession. After this manner then proceed with your task.

Be content, for a time, with writing down the thoughts of others, and this for a special purpose that will presently be apparent.

Take a writer of good English—Swift, Addison, Dryden, Macaulay, Cobbett, or even leading articles of the *Times* (usually models of pure, nervous English)—and read half a page twice or thrice; close the book and write, in your own words, what you have read, borrowing nevertheless from the author so much as you can remember. Compare what you have written with the original, sentence by sentence and word by word, and observe how far you have fallen short of the skilful author. You will thus not only find out your faults, but you will take the measure of them and discover where they lie and how they may be mended.

Repeat the lesson with the same passage twice or thrice, if

your memory is not filled with the author, and observe at each trial the progress you have made, not merely by comparison with the original, but by comparison with the previous exercises. Do this day after day, changing your author for the purpose of varying the style, and continue to do so so long after you have passed on to the second and more advanced stages of your training. Preserve all your exercises, and occasionally compare the latest with the earliest, and so measure your progress periodically.

In the first lesson I pray you to give especial attention to the *words*, which, to my mind, are of greater importance than the sentences. First, take your nouns and compare them with the nouns used by your author. You will probably find your words to be very much *bigger* than his, more sounding, more far-fetched, more classical or more poetical. All young writers fancy that they cannot sufficiently revel in fine words. Comparison with the great masters of English will rebuke this pomposity of inexperience and chasten your aspirations after magniloquence. You will discover, to your surprise, that our best writers eschew big words and abhor fine words. Where there is a choice, they prefer the pure, plain, simple English noun—the name by which the thing is known to all their countrymen, and which, therefore, is instantly understood by every audience. These great authors call a spade "a spade"; only small scribblers or penny-a-liners term it "an implement of husbandry." If there is a choice of names, good writers prefer the homeliest, while you select the most uncommon, supposing that you have thus avoided vulgarity. The example of the masters of the English tongue should teach you that commonness (if I may be allowed to coin a word to express that for which I can find no precise equivalent) and vulgarity are not the same in substance. Vulgarity is shown in assumption and affectation of language quite as much as in dress and manners. It is never vulgar to be natural. Your object is to be understood. You will be required to write for all sorts and conditions of men. To be successful you must write in a language that all classes of your countrymen can understand, and such is the natural vigour, picturesqueness and music of our tongue, that you could not possess yourself of a more powerful instrument for

expression. It is well for you to be assured that by this choice of homely English for the embodying of your thoughts, while you secure the ears of the common people you will at the same time please the most highly educated and refined.

Then for the *sentences*. Look closely at their construction, comparing it with that of your author; I mean, note how you have put your words together. The best way to do this is to write two or three sentences from the book, and interline your own sentences word by word, as nearly as you can. Then you will discover what are your faults in the arrangement of your words. The *placing* of words is next in importance to the choice of them. The best writers preserve the natural order of thought. They sedulously shun obscurities and perplexities. They avoid long and involved sentences. Their rule is, that one sentence should express one thought, and they will not venture in the introduction of two or three thoughts if they can help it. Undoubtedly this is often extremely difficult; sometimes impossible. If you want to qualify an assertion, you must do so on the instant. But the rule should never be forgotten, that a long and involved sentence is to be avoided wherever practicable.

Another lesson you will doubtless learn from the comparison of your composition with that of your model author. You will see a wonderful number of *adjectives* in your own writing and very few in his. It is the besetting sin of young writers to indulge in adjectives, and precisely as a man gains experience his adjectives diminish in number. It seems to be supposed by all unpractised scribblers—and it is a fixed creed with the penny-a-lining class—that the multiplication of epithets gives force. The nouns are never left to speak for themselves. It is curious to take up any newspaper and read the paragraphs of news, especially if they are clipped from a provincial journal or supplied by a penny-a-liner, or to open the books of nine-tenths of our authors of the third and downward ranks. You will rarely see a noun standing alone without one or more adjectives prefixed. Be assured that this is a mistake. An adjective should never be used unless it is essential to correct description. As a general rule, adjectives add little strength to the noun they are set to prop, and a multiplication of them is always enfeebling.

The vast majority of nouns convey to the mind a much more accurate picture of the thing they signify than you can possibly paint by attaching epithets to them. A river is not improved by being described as "flowing;" the sun by being called "the glorious orb of day;" the moon by being styled "gentle;" or a hero by being termed "gallant."

When you have repeated this lesson many times, and find that you can write with some approach to the purity of your author you should attempt an original composition. In the beginning, it would be prudent, perhaps, to borrow the *ideas*, but to put them into your own language. The difficulty of this consists in the tendency of the mind to mistake memory for invention, and thus unconsciously to copy the language as well as the thoughts of the author. The best way to avoid the mischief is to translate poetry into prose; to take, for instance, a page of narrative in verse and relate the same story in plain prose, or to peruse a page of didactic poetry and set down the argument in a plain unpoetical fashion. This will make you familiar with the elements of composition. At this early stage of your education in the Literary Profession the advantage of putting into proper language the thoughts of others rather than your own is that you are better able to discover your faults. Your fatherly love for your own ideas is such that you are really incompetent to form a judgment of their worth or of the correctness of the language in which they are embodied. The critics witness this hallucination every day. Books continually come to them written by men who are *not* mad, who probably are sufficiently sensible in the ordinary business of life, who see clearly enough the faults of other books, who would have laughed aloud over the same pages if placed in their hands by another writer, but who, nevertheless, are utterly unable to recognise the absurdities of their own handiwork. The reader is surprised that any man of common intelligence should indite such a maze of nonsense, where the right word is never to be found in its right place, and this with such utter unconsciousness of incapacity on the part of the author. Still more is he amazed that, even if a sensible man could so write, a sane man could read that composition in print and not with shame throw it into the fire. But the explanation is, that the writer knew what he

intended to say—his mind is full of *that*, and he reads from the MS. or the type not so much what is there set down as what was already floating in his own mind. To criticise yourself you must, to some extent, forget yourself. This is impracticable to many persons, and lest it may be so with you I advise you to begin by putting the thoughts of others into your own language, before you attempt to give formal expression to your own. You must think that you may have thoughts to convey, and read that you may possess words wherewith to express your thoughts correctly and gracefully. You must also have a *style* in your writings.

The faculty for writing varies in different persons. Some write easily, some laboriously, words flow from some pens without effort, others produce them slowly. Composition seems to come naturally to a few, and a few never can learn it, toil after it as they may. But whatever the natural power, of this be certain, that *good* writing cannot be accomplished without much study and long practice. Facility is far from being a proof of excellence. Many of the finest works in our language were written slowly and painfully; the words changed again and again, and the structure of the sentences carefully cast and recast. There is a fatal facility that runs "in one weak, washy, everlasting flood," that is more hopeless than any slowness or slovenliness. If you find your pen galloping over the paper, take it as a warning of a fault to be shunned; stay your hand, pause, reflect, read what you have written, see what are the thoughts you have set down, and resolutely try to condense them. There is no more wearisome process than to write the same thing over again; nevertheless it is a most efficient teaching. Your endeavour should be to say the same things, but to say them in a different form; to condense your thoughts and express them in fewer words. Compare this second effort with the first and you will at once measure your improvement. Rewrite it, still bearing steadily in mind your object, which is to say what you desire to utter in words the most apt and in the briefest form consistent with intelligibility and grace. Having done this, take your last copy and strike out pitilessly every superfluous word, substitute a vigorous or expressive word for a weak one, sacrifice the adjectives without remorse, and when this work is done rewrite the whole as amended.

If you would see what you have gained by this laborious but effective process, compare the completed essay with the first draft of it, and you will recognise the superiority of careful composition over facile scribbling. You will be fortunate if you thus acquire a mastery of condensation, and can succeed in putting reins upon that fatal facility of words before it has grown into an unconquerable habit.

Simplicity is the charm of writing, as of speech; therefore, cultivate it with care. It is not the natural manner of expression, or, at least, there grows with great rapidity in all of us a tendency to an ornamental style of talking and writing. As soon as the child emerges from the imperfect phraseology of his first letters to papa, he sets himself earnestly to the task of trying to disguise what he has to say in some other words than such as plainly express his meaning and nothing more. To him it seems an object of ambition—a feat to be proud of—to go by the most indirect paths instead of the straight way, and it is a triumph to give the person he addresses the task of interpreting his language, to find the true meaning lying under the apparent meaning. Circumlocution is not the invention of refinement and civilisation, but the vice of the uncultivated. It prevails the most with the young in years, and in minds that never attain maturity. You cannot too much school yourself to avoid this tendency.

If you have any doubt of your condition in this respect, your better course will be to consult some judicious friend conscious of the evil and competent to criticism. Submit to him some of your compositions, asking him to tell you candidly what are their faults, and especially what are the circumlocutions in them, and how the same thought might have been better, because more simply and plainly, expressed. Having studied his corrections, rewrite the article, striving to avoid those faults. Submit this again to your friendly censor, and if many faults are found still to linger, apply yourself to the labour of repetition once more. Repeat this process with new writings until you produce them in a shape that requires few blottings. Having thus learned what to shun, you may venture on self-reliance.

Even when parted from your friendly critic you should continue to be your own critic, revising every sentence with resolute

purpose to strike out all superfluous words and to substitute an expressive word for every fine word. You will hesitate to blot many a pet phrase of whose invention you felt proud at the moment of its birth. But if it is circumlocution, pass the pen through it ruthlessly, and by degrees you will train yourself to the crowning victory of literary art—SIMPLICITY.

If you cannot find such a friendly critic, and the fit are few, you may achieve the object by your own effort, though less speedily and perfectly. Take one of our writers of the purest English; read a page; write his thoughts in your own words; compare your composition with his, marking line by line the differences; correct your writing from his text. Then repeat the task, bearing in memory the faults you had committed before, and striving to avoid them. This exercise often renewed will tutor you to write well. But it is more laborious than learning from a teacher, and will demand a large measure of patience and perseverance.

When you are writing on any subject address yourself to it directly. Come to the point as speedily as possible, and do not walk round and about it as if you were reluctant to grapple with it. There is so much to be read nowadays that it is the duty of all who write to condense their thoughts and words.

In constructing your sentences, marshal the words in the order of thought—that is the natural, and therefore the most intelligible, shape for language to assume. In conversation we do this instinctively, but in writing the rule is almost always set at defiance. The man who would tell you a story in a plain straightforward way could not write it without falling into utter confusion and placing almost every word precisely where it ought not to be. In learning to write, then, let this be your next care. Probably it will demand much toil at first in rewriting for the sake of redistributing your words. Acquired habit of long standing will unconsciously mould your sentences to the accustomed shape. But persevere, and you will certainly succeed at last, and your words will express your thoughts precisely as you think them, and as you desire that they should be impressed upon the minds of those to whom they are addressed. So with the sentences. Let each be complete in itself, embodying one proposition. Shun that tangled skein in which some writers involve

themselves, to the perplexity of their readers and their own manifest bewilderment. When you find a sentence falling into such a maze, halt and retrace your steps. Cancel what you have done and reflect what you design to say. Set clearly before your mind the ideas that had begun to mingle. Disentangle them, range them in orderly array, and express them in distinct sentences, where each will stand separate but in its right relationship to all the rest. This exercise will improve not only your skill in the art of writing, but also in the art of thinking, for those involved sentences are almost always the result of confused thoughts. The resolve to write clearly will compel you to think clearly, and you will be surprised to discover how often thoughts, which had appeared to you definite in contemplation, are found, when you come to set them upon paper, to be most incomplete and shadowy.

In treating of the Literary Profession, I find it very difficult to advise my readers what course to pursue in order to enter this calling. Men who have made their mark in literature have in many cases come from other professions. Some of our greatest modern writers came from the ranks of politicians, theologians, lawyers, doctors, &c. Literary work has, as it were, forced itself upon them, and in many cases they have seceded from the old profession, to which they have devoted many years of their lives, and gone in entirely for literature. Many writers of to day, who are earning good incomes, commenced by sending articles to different journals, at first without payment, until a demand sprung up for their productions, and then they were readily sought and liberally paid for by the publishers. Others have written gratuitous serial stories for new publications, and when the papers have become established these same writers have been put on the permanent staff, and received regular incomes—so in many ways success may be achieved in literature.

I have pointed out to you the uncertainties of the Literary Profession, but if, after careful consideration, you decide to adopt it, I trust that the hints I have given may be of service to you in your literary studies.

CHAPTER VIII.

THE MEDICAL PROFESSION.

To my readers who are thinking of entering this Profession I would say that it is perhaps in many respects the most honourable. What can be more ennobling than to study to alleviate human suffering and to endeavour by medical skill to stay the ravages of death. At the same time though there is a bright side there is also the law of compensation at work even in this Profession.

Some medical men have begun to regard this Profession simply as a vocation to enable them to satisfy their physical wants, and there is said to be a lack of appreciation of the high standing of this calling in some quarters. Overstocking, keen competition, and want of private means have no doubt combined to bring about this result. But deplorable as are the facts, it is satisfactory to know that there are still, and always will be, many who, in spite of straitened circumstances, will strive to maintain and preserve the dignity of this splendid Profession—a Profession that so often brings one into close sympathy with human suffering and disease.

No profession makes greater demands upon one's resources than the Medical, for not only is skill needed, but a combination of other qualities. A good physique is essential for the incessant toil and exposure at all times night or day when duty calls. A high tone of morality is also incumbent, and as the confidences of families would be placed in the medical man, strict reticence of secrets affecting the characters of individuals which might be communicated to him must be observed. A fair amount of capital is also required both during the course of studies and after. The life of a medical man, taking it altogether,

is one of continual anxiety, incessant toil, heavy responsibility, and in it there is very little of the leisure which other professions enjoy.

Prior to taking up medical studies a student is compelled to pass a preliminary examination on subjects recognised by the General Medical Council, as follows:

(*a*) *English Language*, with Grammar and Composition. (*b*) *Latin*, including Grammar, Translation from set Authors, and Translation of easy unseen passages. (*c*) *Mathematics*, comprising (1) Arithmetic; (2) Algebra; (3) Geometry (Euclid, Books I.-III.). (*d*) *One Optional* Subject: (1) Greek, or (2) French, or (3) German, or (4) any other modern language, or (5) Logic.

A complete list of the recognised Examinations may be obtained on application to the Registrar of the General Medical Council.

The majority of London Students select one or other of the following Examinations, viz.: (1) Matriculation of the University of London. (2) The Preliminary Examination for Medical Students of the College of Preceptors. (3) The Preliminary Examination of the Society of Apothecaries.

For particulars as to these Preliminary Examinations the intending Student should apply to—

University of London: To the Registrar of the University of London, Burlington-gardens, London, W.

Society of Apothecaries of London: To the Secretary, Apothecaries' Hall, Blackfriars, London, E.C.

College of Preceptors: To the Secretary, College of Preceptors, Bloomsbury-square, W.C.

If he intends to obtain a University Degree he must pass the matriculation examination. In London most students after passing the preliminary examination, and having been registered as medical students by the General Medical Council, 299, Oxford-street, London, W., pursue their studies with the object of obtaining at the same time what is known as the Double Qualification, viz., a licence from both the Royal Colleges of Physicians of London, and the Diploma of Member of the Royal College of Surgeons. The course of study extends to five years, and there are examinations known as the first, second, third, and fourth or final. The subjects for the First Examination are:—

Part 1 Chemistry and Physics.	Part 3 Elementary Biology.
„ 2 Practical Pharmacy.	„ 4 Elementary Anatomy.

These parts may be passed at the same or at different times. Parts 1, 2 and 3 may be passed any time after registration, but Part 4 cannot be passed until six months' attendance at a medical school has been completed.

SECOND EXAMINATION.

Anatomy and Physiology.

This may be passed after eighteen months of professional study, and not sooner than six months after passing the First Examination.

THIRD EXAMINATION.

Part 1. Medicine, including Medical Anatomy, Pathology, Practical Pharmacy, Pharmacology, Therapeutics, Forensic Medicine, and Public Health.

Part 2. Surgery, including Pathology, Surgical Anatomy.

Part 3. Midwifery and diseases peculiar to Women.

The parts may be passed at the same time or at different times. Candidates must have completed four years of medical study, and have passed the second examination at least two years previously. Part 3 may be taken as a part of the Final Examination.

FOURTH AND FINAL.

Clinical Medicine, Clinical Surgery, and Midwifery (if not taken as a part of the Third Examination).

Candidates are admissible to this Examination twelve months after passing the Third Examination.

Besides the Education Fees the Fees are:—

For the 1st Examination ... 10 guineas.
„ 2nd „ ... 10 „
„ 3rd and 4th ditto ... 15 „

Students who have matriculated, and are desirous of graduating at the University of London, five years of study are required, and the following examinations have to be passed:

1st. The Preliminary Scientific Examination, held in January and July. The subjects are chemistry, physics, and biology (zoology and botany).

2nd. The Intermediate Examination in Medicine, held in July and January. Candidates must be 19 years of age, and have studied for two years in a medical school after passing the

preliminary scientific examination. The subjects are anatomy, physiology and histology, materia medica, and pharmaceutical chemistry and organic chemistry.

The Examination for the degree of Bachelor of Medicine is held in October and May. Candidates must be 21 years of age, and have studied for two years after passing the intermediate examination. The subjects are general pathology, general therapeutics and hygiene, surgery, medicine, obstetric medicine and forensic medicine.

The Examination for the degree of Bachelor of Surgery necessitates a further examination in surgery and surgical anatomy.

The Examination for the degree of Doctor of Medicine (M.D.) and Master of Surgery (M.S.) are held in December, and may not be taken sooner than one year after passing the examination for the degree of M.B. or B.S. respectively, the fees for each examination being £5.

The medical student obtains a practical knowledge of his Profession by what is known as Walking the Hospital. In London the principal Hospitals are St. Bartholomew's, St. Thomas's, Guy's, King's College, Charing Cross, West London, St. Mary's, and many others. The student is generally in attendance upon an experienced surgeon, whom he accompanies through the different wards, and by whom he is taught the treatment of the many cases brought under his notice. In this way the student gains a large amount of knowledge and experience. To most of the principal hospitals there is attached an operating theatre, in which operations are performed on patients. There are certain days and times set apart for operating before the whole of the students.

The surgeons in charge of the cases, for three or four surgeons may operate on half a dozen cases each at one sitting, usually explain the nature, history, and development of each case separately before operating, while the patient is under chloroform. By witnessing these operations the student is educated in this most important section of this Profession. It is a very common occurrence for a student early in his studies to faint in the theatre during an operation, so that a fairly strong nerve is a great advantage, but after a time this inconvenient interruption

disappears, and the student learns to regard the Hospital Theatre as a means of acquiring a practical knowledge of one of the most important departments in his studies. There are courses of lectures to be attended, particulars of which can be obtained by the student of the Secretary of the Hospital with which he is connected.

The fees for lectures and hospital practice at St. Bartholomew's, which I consider to be the leading London hospital for training medical students, are as follows:

Composition Fee for attendance on Lectures and Hospital Practice: If paid in one sum on entrance, 150 guineas, or the composition fee may be paid by instalments as follows:

First, on entrance	40 guineas.
Second, at the beginning of the second year	40 „
Third, at the beginning of the third year...	40 „
Fourth, at the beginning of the fourth year	40 „

Payment in either of these ways entitles the Student to a Perpetual Ticket.

Composition Fee to University of London Students who have passed the Preliminary Scientific Examination, 138 guineas and 12 guineas for Advanced Classes, making 150 guineas if paid in one sum on entrance; or 148 guineas and 12 guineas for Advanced Classes, making 160 guineas if paid by instalments as follows: 49 guineas on entrance, 37 guineas at the beginning of the second year, 37 guineas at the beginning of the third year, and 37 guineas at the beginning of the fourth year.

Fee to University Students who have passed an Examination completing their Anatomical and Physiological studies, 80 guineas; or 85 guineas by three instalments, the first of 35 guineas, and the second and third of 25 guineas each.

LECTURES.

Medicine: Sir Dyce Duckworth, Dr. Norman Moore.

Clinical Medicine: Dr. Church, Dr. Gee, Sir Dyce Duckworth, Dr. Hensley.

Surgery: Mr. Willett, Mr. Marsh.

Clinical Surgery: Mr. Thomas Smith, Mr. Willett, Mr. Langton, Mr. Marsh, Mr. Butlin.

Descriptive and Surgical Anatomy: Mr. Walsham, Mr. Bruce Clarke.
Ophthalmic Medicine and Surgery: Mr. Vernon.
Forensic Medicine: Dr. Hensley.
Pathological Anatomy: Dr. Kanthack.
Public Health: Dr. Thorne, C.B., F.R.S.
Mental Diseases: Dr. Claye Shaw.
General Anatomy and Physiology, with Histology: Dr. Klein, F.R.S.
Materia Medica, Pharmacology, and Therapeutics: Dr. Brunton, F.R.S.
Chemistry and Practical Chemistry: Dr. Russell, F.R.S.
Biology and Comparative Anatomy, Dr. Shore.
Botany: Rev. George Henslow.
Physics: Mr. F. Womack.

DEMONSTRATIONS.

Diseases of the Eye: Mr. Vernon, Mr. Jessop.
Diseases of the Larynx: Mr. Bowlby.
Orthopædic Surgery: Mr. Walsham.
Diseases of the Skin: Dr. Samuel West.
Diseases of the Ear: Mr. Cumberbatch.
Dental Surgery: Mr. Paterson, Mr. Ackery.
Practical Medicine: Dr. Samuel West. (Assistant Demonstrators: Dr. Calvert, Dr. Andrewes.)
Practical Surgery: Mr. A. A. Bowlby, Mr. D'Arcy Power.
Practical Midwifery: Dr. Roberts.
Morbid Anatomy: Dr. Tooth.
Surgical Pathology: Mr. A. A. Bowlby.
Administration of Anæsthetics: Mr. Gill.
Medical Electricity: Dr. Lewis Jones.
Operative Surgery: Mr. D'Arcy Power, Mr. J. Berry, Mr. H. J. Waring.
Practical Anatomy: Mr. Waring, Mr. Bailey. (Assistant Demonstrators: Mr. Eccles, Dr. Hayward, Mr. Paton, Mr. Weir.)
Practical Physiology: Dr. Edkins. (Assistant Demonstrators: Dr. Fletcher, Dr. Bowman.)

Practical Pharmacy: Dr. Calvert.
Practical Chemistry: Dr. Chattaway. (Assistant Demonstrator: Mr. Howard.)
Bacteriology: Dr. Kanthack.
Practical Biology: Dr. T. W. Shore. (Assistant Demonstrators: Mr. Groves, Mr. Morland.)
Curator of the Museum: Dr. Kanthack.

The following Scholarships and Prizes are obtainable by students at this Hospital:

At Entrance: Entrance Scholarship in Science—Senior, £75; Entrance Scholarship in Science—Senior, £75; Entrance Scholarship in Science—Junior, £150; Preliminary Scientific Exhibition, £50; Jeaffreson Exhibition, £20; Shuter Scholarship, £50.

At End of First Year: Junior Scholarship, £30; Junior Scholarship, £20; Junior Scholarship, £25; Junior Scholarship, £15; Treasurer's Prize, £5.

At End of Second Year: Senior Scholarship, £50; Foster Prize, £6; Harvey Prize, £6 6*s.*; Wix Prize, £5; Hichens Prize, £7 5*s.*

At End of Third and Later Years: Lawrence Scholarship, £42; Kirkes Scholarship, £30; Brackenbury Medical Scholarship, £35; Brackenbury Surgical Scholarship, £35; Sir George Burrows Prize, £10 10*s.*; Skynner Prize, £13 13*s.*; Bentley Prize, £6 6*s.*: Matthews Duncan Medal and Prize, £20.

After Qualification: Treasurer's Research Studentship, £100. The total value of the scholarships and prizes awarded annually is £882. All communications concerning the Medical School of St. Bartholomew's should be addressed to Dr. T. W. Shore, Warden of the College, St. Bartholomew's Hospital, London, E.C.

After passing his examinations, the newly-fledged medico strikes out in different courses to pursue his Profession. To those more fortunately circumstanced, a further period of study in one of the Continental Colleges gives him an insight into the methods of practice adopted there; but to those to whom money is a consideration, the immediate pursuit of his Profession is imperative, so he either becomes a house surgeon or physician to an hospital, or he obtains a surgeoncy in one of the liners to America or to the East, which certainly has the advantage of enabling him to see much of the world and ways of men.

Others, again, seek for Colonial appointments, or compete for appointments in the Army (British or Indian) and the Navy, while others settle in private practice, if they have the necessary means to purchase a practice, or become assistants to medical men; with the object of gaining an insight into the routine of general practice.

The following apply to the examinations for the Royal Navy:

Medical Officers in the Royal Navy.

Every candidate for admission into the Medical Department of the Royal Navy must not be under twenty-one nor over twenty-eight years of age on the day of the commencement of the competitive examination. He must produce an extract from the register of the date of his birth; or, in default, a declaration made before a magistrate from one of his parents or other near relative, stating the date of birth. He must also produce a certificate of moral character, up to date, and a recommendation signed by a clergyman or magistrate, to whom he has been for some years personally known, or by the President or Senior Professor of the College at which he was educated.

He must be registered under the Medical Act in force, as qualified to practise medicine and surgery in Great Britain and Ireland.

He must declare that he is a British subject, the son of parents of unmixed European blood, that he labours under no mental or constitutional disease or weakness, or any other imperfection or disability which may interfere with the most efficient discharge of the duties of a Medical Officer in any climate; and whether he holds, or has held, any commission or appointment in the public services.

Candidates are examined by the Examining Board in the following compulsory subjects, and the highest number of marks attainable is distributed as follows:—

	Marks.
(*a*) Medicine, including the Diseases of Women and Children	1,000
(*b*) Surgery	1,000
(*c*) Anatomy and Physiology	1,000
(*d*) Chemistry and Materia Medica, with a practical knowledge of Drugs ...	1,000

No candidate shall be considered eligible who shall not have obtained at least *one-third* of the maximum marks in each of the above *compulsory subjects.*

Candidates may be examined in the following voluntary subjects, for which the maximum number of marks obtainable will be :—

	Marks.
Biology, Physics, and Physical Geography (100 each)	300
French and German (150 each)	300

A number less than one-third of the marks obtainable in each of these *voluntary subjects* will not be allowed to count in favour of the candidate who has qualified in the *compulsory subjects.*

The knowledge of modern languages being considered of great importance, all intending competitors are urged to qualify in French and German.

The natural sciences will include Biology, Physics, and Physical Geography.

There is an examination fee of £1.

I would here repeat, do not go into the Medical Profession if you have not means to maintain you while you are walking the Hospital and during the building of your practice. If a parent is in practice and is able to further his son by taking him into partnership, and the young man is in good health, I would strongly recommend him to adopt his father's calling; but where a young man has to fight his own battle with limited means and no patronage, that is quite a different thing.

Another element in the Medical Profession I should like again to refer to, and that is the necessity of possessing an exceptionally strong constitution. Medical men have to visit their patients at all hours of the night; sometimes a doctor has to sit up for one or even two whole nights together, watching a patient in a critical case, and often is called out several times in the middle of the night, summer or winter, wet or dry; whatever the weather is he has to turn out of his warm bed and answer his summons.

As a doctor's practice grows this condition of unrest grows too, so that a doctor should really enjoy not only good health but also possess a constitution of steel.

In addition to these considerations, a medical man, if not in good health and possessing a strong constitution, is liable to catch complaints from which his patients are suffering.

A doctor commencing practice should possess some capital, as he is expected by some people, who are good payers ultimately, but somewhat long-winded, to give long credit. To ask such patients too soon for their accounts would, in all probability, not only discount the respectability of the practitioner, but alienate them as patients; so a doctor has to patiently wait, and to his patients pose as a benefactor who works not for money but for love, though he may not sometimes be able to buy some of the bare necessaries of life.

But, given health, means, and fairly good fortune, the doctor's profession is one of the noblest, if not the noblest, of the professions contained in this work.

CHAPTER IX.

THE MUSICAL PROFESSION.

Singing.

The Musical Profession, like most others, is overcrowded, but still the public will always be ready to welcome a new vocalist so long as he or she is really gifted. Music ministers to one's pleasure, therefore, so long as a singer can please he is welcome, but no longer. The profession of singing is one full of risk, for the voice is produced by very delicate organs, and if these organs are strained or in any way injured the singer's voice goes and with it his livelihood, unless he will fall back upon teaching, for that alone remains.

There are several qualities absolutely necessary to the would-be public singer. He must first of all possess physical strength. The body must never be neglected if the voice is to be used; a weakly body must of necessity produce a weakly voice, wherein there is an absence of richness and fullness as well as of power. It is also necessary that a singer should have a thoroughly good voice; a great deal depends upon this, but not everything, as some people suppose. However grand a voice may be it is of little use unless it can be produced properly. The mere possession of a fine instrument does not imply any ability to perform upon it, and so with singing the possession of a good voice benefits no one unless it be well trained.

Training, then, is necessary, but there must be great care taken in the selection of a professor. Many good voices have been absolutely ruined by bad teachers—teachers who do not understand thoroughly the art of voice production. There are six classes of voices—soprano, mezzo-soprano, and contralto belonging to women; tenor, baritone, and bass belonging to men.

Now bad teachers often spoil a good soprano voice by training it as a contralto, and *vice versâ*. Such an error is often made, but it ruins the voice which is thus wrongly classed. Bad teachers also produce in their pupils a bad style which it is almost impossible to get thoroughly rid of, therefore it is better not to have the voice trained at all than to have it produced wrongly. A teacher professing to be competent in the art of voice production must necessarily have an exact knowledge of the anatomy and physiology of the vocal organs.

Careful, patient, and intelligent practice is also necessary for the would-be singer. A highly cultivated and artistic vocalist is seldom found, not because there is a lack of good voices or good tuition, but merely because students have a disposition to curtail the labour and lessen the time which finished and perfected study demands. To be able to control thoroughly one's voice demands greater and more careful study than that which is required to surmount the difficulties of any manufactured musical instrument.

Labour must not be spared if the voice is thoroughly to be produced. It is not, however, only necessary to study the technicalities of this art, for if we really wish to sing with perfect effect we must also cultivate the æsthetical side of singing. The most complete command over the technical resources will not be sufficient to form a perfect and æsthetic singer without the aid of a deeply sympathetic and cultivated musical organisation, a quick perception, a nature which is sensitive and can appreciate the charm of poetry, and a refined and educated mind. A singer therefore requires a strong and healthy body, a good voice that has been carefully trained, sympathy, dramatic power and taste, that he may be able to throw life and meaning into the words and music of his song.

This is not the book wherein to give any instruction in the art of voice production or practice, therefore I shall refrain from investigating the bad effects of forced practice and the many other errors to be guarded against if the voice is to be developed and preserved. All I want to do is to show students where they may be most effectually helped and warned, where they may gain the best instruction, and have their voices produced in the best possible way so that they may enter with

credit to themselves into the pleasant and attractive profession of public singing.

It is difficult to say precisely when a boy or girl should begin to study singing. It is not wise, however, to be under regular tuition before the age of seventeen, as between the ages of twelve and seventeen the voices of both boys and girls crack, and during this period, if the voice is used very much it will be quickly ruined; but it is quite harmless and even helpful to study singing before the age of twelve, but it should on no account be continued during the four or five following years, when both body and voice are necessarily delicate. At the age of seventeen it is therefore generally considered safe for the voice to be put under the care of a good professor, and the best of tuition may be had at the Royal Academy of Music, Tenterden-street, Hanover-square, London, W. Many of those who have received the highest distinctions in their profession have been students at this Institution, amongst whom I may mention Mary Davies, Marian McKenzie, Julia Neilson, Clara Samuell, and Agnes Zimmermann; Joseph Barnby, William G. Cousins, Ben Davies, Eaton Faning, George Macfarren, Walter Macfarren, Alexander C. Mackenzie, Brinley Richards, Arthur Goring Thomas, William Shakespeare, Arthur Sullivan, and many others that space will not allow me to mention.

This National Institution was founded in the year 1822; it owes its origin to the great exertions of John Fane, eleventh Earl of Westmoreland, and was opened on March 24th, 1823, under the patronage of King George IV., who contributed an annual donation of one hundred guineas to its support. King William IV. was also one of its patrons, and continued giving the annual donation that George IV. had subscribed. Her Majesty the Queen still continues the support and patronage extended to the Institution by her two predecessors.

The Charter of the Academy states that its objects are "to promote the cultivation of the science of music and to afford facilities for attaining perfection in it by assisting with general instruction all persons desirous of acquiring a knowledge thereof."

The Academy has often displayed its best talent at concerts given by the students, and ever since its foundation it has

retained with honour its leading position. The building has had to be enlarged, so also has its educational course, but notwithstanding external alterations it remains unaltered as the leading musical institution.

The increase of students has been very great. In the year 1823 only twenty students were admitted, but at the present time there are over five hundred receiving tuition.

This Royal and National Institution, whose greatest recommendation is the talent which it has produced, is the Academy to which I can most safely refer all those who wish to receive the best tuition in order to enter the Musical Profession.

The students of the Royal Academy consist of Scholars, Exhibitioners, and Paying Students.

There are, up to the present time, fourteen Scholarships and Exhibitions in active operation; these cannot be gained except by competition, and several are open both to students and non-students.

The Scholarships and Exhibitions generally entitle the holder to three years of free tuition at the Academy; if, however, the Scholarship funds are not sufficient, they are applied in part payment of the scholar's fee.

The holder of a Scholarship has, at certain times, to be examined, and if at these examinations he or she is not found to be making sufficient progress, the committee have the power to declare the Scholarship vacant, and elect a new scholar to receive tuition during the remainder of the term.

The Academic fee for ordinary paying students is 33 guineas a year, and for this sum a student receives thorough tuition in a first or principal study. Of course, a candidate who wishes to be trained as a public singer would take singing as his principal study—having two individual lessons of thirty minutes each per week, and also having the privilege of being present whilst other students are receiving lessons. He would also have to choose a second study—violin, pianoforte, organ, &c.—and would receive on this second study one lesson per week of one hour's duration, partly in conjunction with others, and partly individual tuition. He would also be required to be present every week in class for one hour's lesson on the Elements of Music, and after passing through the Elements Class to attend

the Harmony and Counterpoint, and after attaining the necessary grade in Harmony and Counterpoint, to pass into the class for Composition, devoting to it the same amount of time—one hour weekly.

The student would also have to receive one hour's lesson every week in class on Sight Singing and Musical Dictation. It is also necessary that he should attend the class for Choral Singing for one hour and a half every week. One hour a week must be devoted to the Elocutionary Class, where singing is the principal study, and, if sufficiently advanced, three hours twice a week should be given to Orchestral Practice. Unless under special circumstances, and with the permission of the principal or curator, students are obliged to attend the above classes.

Students are admitted at the beginning of the term or half-term, but before entering they have to be examined by the principal or curator in order that the general fitness of a candidate may be judged, also to know to what degree of proficiency he has attained, and if accepted to make arrangements for professors and classes. This examination fee is one guinea, but if the candidate is accepted it is deducted from the five guineas entrance fee into the Academy, leaving only four guineas to be paid.

The examination entrance fee of one guinea should be forwarded with the printed form of application for admission three days before the date announced for the entrance examination.

The professional staff of the Academy includes some of the greatest teachers of singing, but I can mention only a few—Richard Cummings, A.R.A.M., W. H. Cummings, hon. R.A.M., E. Turner Lloyd, Paolo Tosti, and Madame Agnes Larkcom, A.R.A.M.

Students who have attended over a year may on leaving the Academy be examined by the principal, and he will give them a certificate of their qualification as a teacher, performer, or both if the examination is satisfactory. If, however, students show special ability they may be elected by the directors, Associates of the Institution, and receive the privilege of using after their names the letters A.R.A.M.

Students who, after leaving the Academy, distinguish themselves in the Musical Profession may be elected by the directors,

Fellows of the Institution, and receive the honour of using after their names the letters R.A.M.

There are no arrangements for lodging students at the Academy, but the secretary keeps a list of persons who have shown good references and are willing to take students as boarders.

The Academic year dates from Michaelmas to the end of July, the financial year from January 1st to December 31st.

At this Royal Institution a student will be trained thoroughly and intelligently, and he will also receive many advantages which a private professor in his own home cannot give. Therefore the Royal Academy is the Institution I recommend first of all. But to those who cannot afford 33 guineas per year for musical tuition, but who nevertheless wish to be trained as well as possible, I can safely and confidently refer them to the Guildhall School of Music, Victoria Embankment, London, E.C., which was established by the Corporation of London in the year 1880. It includes in its long list of singing professors W. H. Cummings, Richard Cummings, Gustave Garcia—these three are also professors at the Royal Academy,—Sims Reeves, Signor Bozzelli, and Madame Florence Winn. The fees for tuition in singing are £1 10*s.*, £2 2*s.*, and £3 3*s.* for twelve lessons of twenty minutes, but for twelve lessons of thirty minutes the fees are £2 4*s.*, £3 3*s.*, and £4 14*s.* 6*d.*, the fees vary according to the professor selected. Students receive one lesson every week. In addition to the fee for tuition a term fee of 2*s.* 6*d.* per term has to be paid, and new students must pay an entrance fee of 5*s.* Students who wish to have Sims Reeves as a professor must make special terms with the secretary.

There are several scholarships, exhibitions, and prizes that may be gained by students who work hard and progress well. Students who have studied at the school not less than three years may be examined, and if the examination is satisfactory, they are entitled to a certificate of proficiency and an Associateship of the Guildhall School of Music. Five guineas is charged as the fee for this examination. Terms begin on the fourth Monday in September, the second Monday in January, and the fourth Monday in April.

The Guildhall School of Music has not been established very

many years, but it has produced many excellent vocalists and instrumentalists, and is still developing talent that will in the future grace the musical profession.

The London College of Music, at 7, Great Marlborough-street, W., is also a good training school, but space will not allow me to give any account of the tuition. There are many other good schools where singing is well taught, but I can speak with knowledge and great confidence of the excellent tuition in singing given at the Royal Academy and the Guildhall School of Music.

When a singer has been thoroughly trained at any of these schools, and he enters the Musical Profession, he will have but little difficulty in obtaining engagements; of course, there is the difficulty of getting known to the public, but a good singer will find that the public is ready and waiting to make his acquaintance. Never was real talent better appreciated than it is to-day. It is not true that the public cannot recognise worth; it can recognise anything that is worth its recognition, and what right have we to expect more than that? If a singer possesses a good voice, which has been well-trained, he will derive a great deal of pleasure, as well as a good income, from his profession. If possible, a vocalist should use his voice only for public singing, and not, whilst he is regularly accepting engagements, wear out his vocal organs by teaching. Let him keep his voice before the public as long as possible, and then, when its beauty and power has declined, he can with honour withdraw from the public, and teach the art he has so ably practised for years. But if the voice is carefully used, and the body is kept well-nourished, a singer may remain before the public until old age creeps upon him and lessens his powers. There is no need for a vocalist to take any special diet, so long as his food suits the body, it will also suit the voice.

The Vocalist's Profession is one of the most delightful, and it is certainly a very remunerative one, so long as the voice is well cared for.

Instrumental.

Although by far the largest branch of the Musical Profession belongs to the vocalist, yet there are many professional instrumentalists, and the number is gradually increasing year by year. We are not only called upon to listen to and admire men and

women, but children seem at the present time to gain as much well-deserved admiration as their elders.

We have professional violinists and pianists, consisting of men, women, and children: the public puts no restriction upon the age of a performer, but often prefers to see the skill of a child to that of a grown man. The taste for instrumental solos is gradualiy developing. Lady Hallé, Doctor Joseph Joachim, and Sarasate are continually playing before audiences which seem enchanted and fascinated by the sweet strains they draw from their violins. There is this same effect noticed upon the audience when the piano is the instrument selected.

But although the public will listen with the greatest attention to a solo perfectly rendered upon an instrument, it is fearfully impatient when the performer is not a perfect master. It is therefore necessary that whatever instrument is to be studied it should be mastered perfectly.

It is therefore better to study at some large academy or school of music where no professor is admitted to teach unless he is thoroughly competent. I again recommend to students the Royal Academy of Music and the Guildhall School of Music, where the pianoforte, harp, organ, violin, viola, violoncello, double bass, and wind instruments are perfectly taught. The fee at Guildhall for twelve lessons of thirty minutes on the pianoforte is the same as that charged for solo singing. For the violin and violoncello the fee is £2 4*s*. and £3 3*s*., for the harp £2 4*s*. and £4 14*s*. 6*d*., for the viola and double bass £2 4*s*., and for the organ £3 3*s*.

The Royal Academy fee is 33 guineas per annum, and the curriculum, excepting in the case of the principal study, is exactly the same as I gave above, when singing was taken as the principal study.

The degrees of Bachelor and Doctor of Music must be obtained at one of the Universities.

At the University of London, candidates for the Degree of Bachelor of Music are required to have passed the Matriculation Examination and two subsequent examinations. The Intermediate Examination in Music takes place once in each year, and commences on the second Monday in December, but no candidate can be admitted unless he has passed the Matricula-

tion Examination at least ten months previously. On entering this examination a fee of £5 must be paid to the Registrar.

The Bachelor of Music Examination takes place once in each year, and commences on the third Monday in December, every candidate must have passed the Intermediate Examination in Music at least one year previously, an entrance fee of £5 must be paid by the candidate to the Registrar on entering the examination.

At the University of London, every candidate for the Degree of Doctor of Music (D. Mus.) is required to have obtained the degree of Bachelor of Music at the university, and also to pass two subsequent examinations. The Intermediate D. Mus. Examination commences on the second Monday in December. The entrance fee is £5.

The D. Mus. Examination commences on the third Monday in December, but no candidate can be admitted to this examination unless he has obtained the Degree of Bachelor of Music at least two years previously, and has passed the Intermediate D. Mus. Examination. The entrance fee for this examination is £5.

For a list of the subjects in which candidates are examined at any of the above examinations, apply to the Registrar of the University of London, Burlington Gardens, London, W.

A talented musician generally has splendid prospects, and a large income may be made by serving the public well, but when at last his influence over the public mind declines, he need not thus be deprived of a livelihood, for he may become a private professor, which is often quite as remunerative as public service, although perhaps there is not such delightful excitement to be experienced in teaching as in performing before large and admiring audiences.

I will conclude my advice on the Musical Profession by adding ten rules for public musical performers which I hope may be of some service to those who are about to appear before the musical public:—

1. Do not be continually taking voice jubes and the numerous lozenges which are to-day advertised for singers, they often spoil the voice, and there is really little need for them at all so long as there is sufficient care taken of the body.

2. Never sing if you have a cold which in the slightest degree affects the voice, for you cannot do credit to yourself, and you also run a great risk of straining the delicate organs of the throat and thereby ruining your voice for ever.

3. Do not be over anxious to please your audience, or it will cause nervousness, but take care to thoroughly please yourself, for what pleases you and gives you satisfaction will be that which the audience will appreciate also; but nevertheless you must choose a song or piece of music that will suit the general taste of your hearers.

4. Never sing a song publicly which does not suit your voice, no matter who requests you to do so.

5. Never refuse an encore which the audience is really anxious for you to accept, or you will displease many of your admirers, and will very likely lead your audience to think that you will do no more than what you are paid for. On the other hand, never accept an encore unless you are sure it is sincere, or it will have the effect of cheapening your talent.

6. Never sing or play a long piece for an encore, but choose one that is bright, short, and taking, or you will make your audience weary of your performance and they will wish that they had not encored you.

7. Do not always refuse to sing or perform unless you are paid. To help at charities without any fee is always looked upon as an act of kindness, and is greatly appreciated, and such kindness may generally be performed without cheapening your talent, it often has quite the reverse effect—it shows clearly your good taste and goodwill.

8. If you do not wish to be nervous, do not be self-conscious; but rivet your mind on your performance and think or care for nothing else.

9. Never appear before any audience slovenly attired, be sure that your toilet is perfect, and above all things look happy, for when performers look miserable, anxious, and nervous, they impart the same uncomfortable feelings to their audience, and their performance is often a complete failure.

10. (Be natural.)

CHAPTER X.

THE NAVY.

THE Royal Navy is undoubtedly the more popular of the two Services on which our national prosperity so largely depends. The record of a naval battle, whether against the Spaniards in the days of Drake and Frobisher, or against the Dutch in the days of Blake, or against the French in the never-to-be-forgotten days of Nelson, Rodney and Howe, stirs in every true British breast a genuine feeling of patriotic pride.

The traditions of the Navy are written in deeds of heroic daring, and of indomitable courage. The needs of the Navy are as urgent now as ever. It has been said that our Navy, in the beginning of the century, had three times as many ships, and twice as many men as to-day, although the population of our Empire has swollen to thirty times the extent that it had reached at the beginning of this period. Yet the advantages are greater now than they ever were. I shall put some of these advantages before my readers, and then show what are the main qualifications for success in the Navy, how to get into it, and lastly what are the prospects of those who join it.

I.—THE ADVANTAGES OF THE NAVY.

1. The employment is permanent, both for officers and men. Whereas in so many departments of business, or in the various handicrafts, there are financial crashes, or spells of enforced inactivity, it is never so in the Navy. Good conduct, obedience to orders, faithfulness in discharge of duties, will ensure continuous employment in the Navy, whereas in many civil callings these excellent qualities cannot provide against summary dismissal, or against heavy losses in trade.

2. *The pay is regular.* Officers and men know just what they

will get, and that they will get it. The country is their paymaster, and so long as a patriotic spirit prevails, the country will always act fairly to its gallant defenders. Sailors, like farmers and other folk, have their grievances and air them: they are regarded as inveterate grumblers, but the grumbling is of the goodhumoured sort, of the true John Bull type.

3. The Service gives a recognised position to those engaged in it. The Executive Officers find an entrance into any society; the men of the lower grades have the privilege of feeling that they are organised into one body, as the champions and representatives of England's power on the sea.

4. There is a chance of frequent promotion for an able and thorough-going seaman who has earned a good reputation. The steps of promotion may not be very high, but still each step is a step in advance. The number of ranks on board a man-of-war is quite an intricate subject of study.

5. There are opportunities for active service, not very frequent, and for the general peace prevailing we must be grateful. But there are not wanting occasions on the West Coast of Africa and elsewhere, when dash and pluck will be certain to ensure promotion.

6. The world can be seen for nothing. On England's Empire the sun never sets, and English men-of-war sail on every sea. There are eleven stations in all, eight of them foreign; these are Australia, China Sea, India, West Africa and Cape of Good Hope, Pacific, South-East America, North America and West Indies, and the Mediterranean; the others being for Home defence, such as the Channel Squadron, the Coastguard, and the Training Squadron. Here is a pretty wide enough surface to excite an enterprising young man to join the "Queen's Navee."

7. The work involves no strain. By that we mean that the subordinates on board ship are not subject to the worry or to the long hours or to the "sweating" system, or to the keen competition of business, all of which are rarely compensated for by large gains, but on the contrary are often the prelude to serious losses of health and of money. The sailor's life is a free, healthy life: his hours and meals and work—all regular. Everything goes by clockwork aboard ship.

8. The educational advantages are numerous. Outside the

special course of study and practice required there are opportunities for private study and self-improvement, as well as for general reading. Jack Tar's life is by no means all work and no play; if it were he would be an inexpressibly dull fellow, instead of the lively yarn-loving joker that he is.

9. The healthy influence of discipline and training on the physique and on the moral character of the bluejacket cannot be over estimated. There is especial need in the present day of forming, maintaining and encouraging the spirit of due subjection to law and order; the tendency amongst some sections of the young of our population in the large towns being towards rowdiness and lawlessness of various kinds. The strict discipline of both the services is entirely inconsistent with this feature of deterioration in our social life. The restraints on board ship, and the conditions of a seafaring life, are such as to prevent, at least on board, those outbreaks of unruliness and disorder with which landlubbers in large towns are familiar. It is true that sailors sometimes break out on their discharge from their ships, but the merchant service, and not the Navy is the chief offender, and, at all events, the restraints of discipline usually have a beneficial effect even when the bow is unstrung,

Such are some of the advantages of joining the Royal Navy. All who do so with a desire and full intention of progressing in their calling, will be turned out spruce, smart, well-disciplined men.

II.—Qualifications for the Navy.

There are some general qualifications which the aspirant to promotion in the Navy should possess, such as a love of the sea, a love of country, a spirit of loyalty and of submission under orders, qualities by no means common in the present day, but which may be developed by painstaking. Patriotism may be excited by the inspiring study of the noble deeds of our soldiers and sailors on many a glorious battle-field and in many a brilliant naval engagement. Pluck and courage will often manifest themselves early in a boy's career; but the pusillanimous or the bookworm of the family had better not be sent to sea if they express a decided aversion to the service, although intelligence cannot be overrated as an essential qualification of those who would rise in the Navy. For ordinary seamen or for

cadets, according to their station in society, the boy with the roving, adventurous spirit, the "ne'er-do-well" of the family, should be pressed into the service, where his raw material will soon be worked up into a useful even if not a polished article.

It must not be supposed that the Navy is the last refuge in the case of those who have been convicted. As a matter of fact, no boy can enter on one of Her Majesty's ships who has been convicted in a court of justice, or placed under restraint in a reformatory, whether on land or sea. The boy who is training for a seaman must have the simple qualification of being sound in wind and limb, able to read and write. His antecedents must bear investigation; he must be able to give the name of some respectable person (a clergyman is generally preferred) who can vouch for his respectability as well as for that of his parents. Every boy must satisfy the examining officer that he is between 15 and 16½ years, for which purpose a certificate of his birth is required. He must also reach a certain standard of height and of measurement round the chest. Boys between 15 and 15½ years must stand 5ft. ½in. (without shoes), and measure 30½in. round the chest; between 15½ and 16 the height must be 5ft. 1½in., and round the chest 31in.; between 16 and 16½ they must reach 5ft. 2½in. in height, and 31½in. round the chest.

Where the certificate of birth is not procurable, a declaration by parents or guardians, made before a magistrate, that the boy is of proper age, will be taken as a substitute. The written consent of the parents, or guardians or next of kin if the boy be fatherless or motherless, must be obtained, as well as an engagement entered into binding him to twelve years' continuous service from the age of 18 onwards.

The *general* qualifications for a commissioned officer include, of course, love of the sea, a taste for the profession, intelligence, perseverance, soundness in mind and body. The training in harbour of both officers and men lasts for two years. A nomination from some person high in authority at the Admiralty—indeed, from no less a person than the First Lord—is required. A flag officer, or a commodore in chief command of a station, and a captain within six months of their appoint-

ment may nominate a candidate for a cadetship. But we are now trenching on our third head.

III.—How to Enter the Navy.

(*a*) As regards *seamen*, the ages and other qualifications for entrance have been given. Many of the lads are sons of artisans, but many have an hereditary interest in the Navy, their fathers and grandfathers having been in Her Majesty's ships in previous generations. The Coastguard are always interested in securing boys who show some promise of containing the sort of material that goes to manufacture a stout and sturdy bluejacket, for they receive the sum of ten shillings as a *douceur* for every promising youth sent into the service. The best of the boys hail from the Royal Naval School at Greenwich direct, and, alas! the inferior sort come from London and our great towns. But, whether the youth has had some preliminary training or not, he must proceed through the usual curriculum in a naval training ship. Boys when they first join the Navy are known as "Second-Class" Boys. Boys from the London district may apply directly to the Recruiting Department, 22, Spring-gardens, Charing Cross, where a paper will be given them asking for the aforementioned particulars as to age, respectability, &c. Boys in other parts of the country may be received by the Recruiting Officers of Marines at Birmingham, Bristol, Cambridge, Derby, Edinburgh, Exeter, Glasgow, Hull, Liverpool, London, Salisbury, Sunderland, Taunton, or by officers of the Coastguard, by whom they are passed on to the nearest Training Ship, where they are formally entered.

The *Impregnable* at Devonport is the headquarters of the training department. Other training ships are the *Lion*, also at Devonport, the *Boscawen* at Portland, the *Ganges* at Falmouth, the *St. Vincent*. At one of these ships the second-class boy must begin his naval training. He is there educated under fully qualified teachers (officers, of course) for a couple of years, and becomes then a first-class boy. If he proves himself to be smart and obedient, he may become a first-class boy in less than two years; then he goes to sea and begins at the lowest round of the ladder, thence to rise (let us hope) to be chief

gunner, or chief boatswain, or chief carpenter. Of his pay we shall speak later on.

I turn now to the entrance examination for those who aspire to fill the higher grades in the Service, from the cadetship to the Admiralty of the Fleet. The would-be cadet must pass an entrance examination between the ages of 13 and 14½ years after obtaining a nomination from the First Lord of the Admiralty as previously described. There are a few privileged cadetships given to sons of gentlemen in the Colonies on the recommendation of the Secretary of State for the Colonies, or to the sons of officers of the Army, Navy, or Marines killed in action, or dying from wounds received in action. Application for these should be made to the Military Secretary, Horse Guards, or to the Secretary of the Admiralty, or to the Military Secretary, India Office, respectively, as the applicant is the son of Army, Navy, or Indian Army officer. Of course, these cadets must pass the test examination. All examinations are conducted by the Civil Service Commissioners. The fee for the examination is 10*s*. The Examinations are held in London, and commence on the second Tuesday in June, and the first Tuesday in December, in each year, and the candidates must be not less than 13 nor more than 14½ on July the 15th or January the 15th respectively. Every candidate must be free from any physical defect. A certificate of birth, or an affidavit thereto before a magistrate, must be produced; also a testimonial of good conduct from the masters of the school which he has attended for the two previous years, or, if educated at home, from his private tutor or the clergyman of his parish.

The following are the subjects for the test examination, and the maximum of marks allotted to each subject:

1. Arithmetic, including proportion, vulgar and decimal fractions, 250 marks.

(2.) Algebra, including fractions, simple equations and problems, and quadratic equations of one unknown quantity, 200 marks.

(3.) Euclid, book 1, with exercises and questions, 200 marks.

(4.) Handwriting, dictation, reading with intelligence, composition, 150 marks.

(5.) French; translating French into English, and English

into French; grammatical questions, speaking and dictation. (No dictionary will be allowed, but the equivalents of the less usual words in either language will be given.) 250 marks.

(6.) Scripture, 100 marks.

Half marks in arithmetic required, and 40 per cent. in each of the other subjects.

Anyone who fails to satisfy the Examiners in the Test Examination may not try again unless he receives a fresh nomination, and is still within the limits of age.

Candidates will be further examined in the following subjects, which constitute, with the preliminary subjects, a competitive Examination.

(7) Mathematics: harder questions in arithmetic, algebra and geometry, as above defined, 300 marks.

(8) Latin: translation, grammar, and prose composition. (No dictionary will be allowed, but the equivalents for the less usual words will be given.) 300 marks.

(9) Geography: including the subjects treated of in Grove's primer, and an elementary knowledge of the principal places in the British Isles and dependencies, 150 marks.

(10) English History: a short selected period, 150 marks.

(11) Drawing, freehand and simple rectangular model, 100 marks.

In English two-fifths of the full marks are required in each of the two sub-divisions of the subject.

Any candidate passing the test examination but failing in the competition may compete at the next examination if still under age. No candidate may stand more than twice.

I will suppose that the candidate has successfully passed the examination. He must now serve on board the *Britannia* for two years at his parent's expense. This will cost £75 a year, to be paid half-yearly. A few sons of officers specially selected are received at £40 a year. To this lump sum of £75 must be added such extras as washing, repairing boots and clothes, pocket-money, &c.

There are two terms in each year, from February to July, and from September to December; thirteen weeks' vacation in all at Christmas, Easter, and Midsummer.

The Cadet has now entered on his course of training on board

the *Britannia*; but before leaving him I must mention that he will be subject to examinations at the end of each term; that if he fails to obtain 40 per cent. of marks in mathematics at the end of his second term, or the same percentage in the theory of Navigation, Nautical Astronomy, in the Technical subjects, in Physics and French, or if he fails to obtain 50 per cent. in Seamanship, or be reported to the Admiralty twice for unsatisfactory conduct, or should he be deemed unfit for the service, he will be ordered to be withdrawn. The period on board the *Britannia* is probationary.

On passing out of the *Britannia*, the cadets rank according to order of merit. Their outfit must be supplied by their parents. Of course no pay is allowed to cadets whilst on the *Britannia*.

A list of articles (including books) required for a naval cadet on joining the *Britannia* is appended:—

A Midshipman's Sea Chest complete, with name in full on top, engraved on plain brass plate:—length, 3ft. 6in.; breadth, 2ft.; height, 2ft. 3in.

(It is requested that the chest may be at Dartmouth seven days previous to the cadet's joining.)

3 Pillow Cases.
1 Hair Mattress, 5ft. 6in. by 1ft. 9in.
1 Hair Pillow.
2 Blankets
1 Counterpane } 6ft. by 4ft. 6in.
3 Pair Sheets

*1 Uniform Jacket
*1 Do. Trousers
*1 Do. Waistcoat
*1 Do. Cap, peak ½ turn down } Superfine.

†2 Working Uniform suits (one of thick flannel, one of pilot cloth).
*1 Uniform Working Cap, peak ½ turn down.
12 White Shirts.
12 Collars.
6 Night Shirts.

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* A pattern can be seen at the Admiralty.
† Patterns of the jackets can be seen at the Admiralty.

12 Pair Merino Socks.
4 White Flannel Trousers, well shrunk.
3 Pair Drawers, Merino.
3 White Flannel Shirts (with collar to turn down).
3 Lambswool Undervests.
2 White Waistcoats.
12 Towels.
7 Merino Vests.
2 Black Silk Neckties (made up).
2 Pair Braces.
3 Pair Strong *laced* Boots, with thick soles.
1 Clothes Brush.
1 Sponge.
1 Carpet Bag.
1 Clothes Bag.
12 Pocket Handkerchiefs.
1 Pair Elastic-side Oxford Shoes, with strong soles.
1 Brush and Comb.
1 Tooth Brush.
1 Nail Brush.
1 Rug (travelling).

Pea Jackets are not to be supplied, as the thick Working Jacket can be worn over the Uniform Jacket, if necessary.

Clothing to be distinctly marked with the cadet's name in full.

NOTE.—Trousers to be made without pockets, and only one pocket on the left breast of the jackets of the two working uniform suits.

I will imagine that our youthful cadet has served his two years of training on board the *Britannia* with credit, and has passed out with an allowance of so much sea-time by way of reward. His steps of promotion will be by way of a Midshipman to a Sub-Lieutenant, Lieutenant, Commander, Captain, and, if fortunate, to Rear-Admiral, Vice-Admiral, Admiral, and if extraordinarily lucky, to the highest post of all, that of Admiral of the Fleet. But there are other branches of the Service, such as the Engineering, the Medical, the Paymaster's Branch, and the Royal Marines.

Engineer Students.

The following particulars are extracted from the Navy List:—

Vacancies for appointments as Engineer Students in Her Majesty's Navy will be filled principally by means of competitive examinations open to all sons of British subjects, being of the prescribed age and of good moral character, but their lordships will reserve to themselves the right to nominate a few candidates at each entry, who will be appointed on passing the examination.

Three Engineer Studentships will be given annually to sons of gentlemen in the Colonies on the recommendation of the Secretary of State for the Colonies, provided they pass the required examination. These candidates will be subject to precisely the same regulations as herein laid down for nominated service candidates.

The list of candidates for the appointments by open competition will be kept at the office of the Civil Service Commissioners.

All applications for the forms to be filled up by persons who wish to compete must be sent to the *Secretary, Civil Service Commission, London, S.W.*, on or after the 1st of January in each year, and care must be taken that the forms, when filled up, are returned so as to reach the *Civil Service Commissioners* on or before the *15th March following*, as no notice will be taken of forms received after that date.

Candidates must not be less than fourteen nor more than sixteen years of age on the 1st day of May in the year in which they are examined.

The Medical Examination of the successful candidates will be held under the authority of their lordships, as soon as possible after the result of the Educational Examination is made known.

The Educational Examination will be held by the Civil Service Commissioners in London, Liverpool, Portsmouth, Devonport, Bristol, Leeds, Newcastle-on-Tyne, Edinburgh, Glasgow, and Dublin, and will take place in the month of April in each year. The exact date may be ascertained by application to the Secretary, Civil Service Commission.

The following will be the subjects of the Competitive Examination, and the maximum number of marks for each subject:—

*Arithmetic		300
English—		
*Handwriting	40	
*Accuracy and Intelligence in Writing from Dictation ...	60	
*Composition	100	
*Grammar	150	
		350
French or German or Italian—		
Translation into English		150
Latin—		
Translation into English		150
Very Elementary Physics and Chemistry		100
Geography (including Physical Geography)		200
Algebra (up to and including quadratic equations)		300
Euclid's Elements (Books I. to IV. and Book VI., and definitions of Book V.)		300
Freehand Drawing		100
		1,950

All candidates will be tested as to their ability to read aloud.

A fee of 10*s.* is required from every candidate attending an examination.

Candidates in the competitive examination who fail to pass in the first five subjects (those marked with an *asterisk), or in reading aloud, will be disqualified. Successful candidates will be entered as engineer students in H.M. Navy, according to the number of appointments which it may be decided to make each year. Candidates who obtain less than 880 marks in the aggregate will not be placed upon the list.

The successful candidates will be entered as engineer students in H.M. Navy on the first of July in each year, and will be borne on the books of the Guard Ship of the Reserve at Devonport for

disciplinary purposes. The period of training at H.M. Dockyard at Devonport will be for five years.

Students in naval construction not exceeding two in number annually will be appointed from among engineer students who have shown special ability at the end of their second year of service.

The parent or guardian of each engineer student entered will be required to pay the sum of £40 per annum for each year the student may be under training—four, five, or six years, as the case may be. It will, however, be at the discretion of the Lords Commissioners of the Admiralty to select from among the students entered at each yearly examination, a number not to exceed five, being sons of officers of the Navy, Army, or Marines, or of Civil officers under the Board of Admiralty, with respect to whom the annual payment will be £25 only.

The parents or guardians of the students are required to provide the uniform or other clothing, washing, and necessaries of each student. Board and lodging and medical attendance are provided by the Admiralty.

The weekly pay of students during their training will be as follows, provided they are well reported on by the officers:—

First Year...	One Shilling	a week.
Second „	Two Shillings	
Third „	Three „	
Fourth „	Five „	
Fifth „	Eight „	

List of articles required as an outfit for an Engineer Student on joining the training school at Keyham. Estimated cost about £15.

2 White Flannel Shirts.
2 White Flannel Trousers.
6 White Shirts.
6 Coloured Shirts.
12 Collars.
3 Night Shirts.
6 Pairs Merino Socks.
4 Pairs Cotton or Merino Drawers.
4 Merino Vests.
2 Neck Ties.
2 Pairs Braces.
6 White Handkerchiefs.
6 Coloured Handkerchiefs.
6 Towels.
1 Clothes Brush.
1 Sponge.
1 Leather Bag.
1 Brush and Comb.
1 Tooth and 1 Nail Brush.
3 Pairs Boots.
1 Pair Slippers.
2 Pairs Gloves.

Students will be required to find their own books, and a list will be furnished to each on appointment. They will also be required to find their own stationery and drawing materials.

Every candidate for direct appointment as Probationary Assistant Engineer in the Royal Navy must not be under 20 nor over 23 years of age on the 1st day of May in the year in which he is examined.

He must produce satisfactory evidence to show that he has passed through the regular course at a recognised college for technical education, and also that he has been not less than three years under training in an approved engineering establishment.

He must be a British subject, and must produce a certificate of good conduct for a period of not less than five years.

About ten appointments are offered annually for competition among candidates who fulfil the preceding conditions.

The exact number of appointments to be made in each year will be fixed by their lordships.

The Examinations are held at the Royal Naval College, Greenwich, in the month of June of each year,

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Accountant Officers.

Appointments to Assistant Clerkships will be made by limited competition, with the following exception, viz:—

One nomination will be made annually of a candidate to be appointed on passing the test examination specified below.

This candidate will be selected by the Board of Admiralty from sons of officers of the Navy.

All other candidates will be nominated by the First Lord of the Admiralty.

Two examinations for Assistant Clerkships will be held annually under the direction of the Civil Service Commissioners (address, Cannon Row, Westminster), viz., on the first Tuesday in June and the third Tuesday in November.

Candidates will be required to pay a fee of £1 to the Civil Service Commissioners.

No candidate will be eligible for examination in November

whose age will not be within the prescribed limits (viz., 15 to 17 years of age) on January 15th following, or for examination in June whose age will not be within the prescribed limits on July 15th following.

Every candidate will be required to pass the medical examination, according to the prescribed regulations.

The candidate will be required to produce (1) a registrar's certificate of birth (a certificate of baptism will not be accepted) or declaration thereof made before a magistrate; (2) a certificate of good conduct from the masters of any schools at which he may have been educated within the two previous years, or, if educated at home, from his tutors or the clergyman of the parish in which he resides; (3) a certificate of ability to swim.

The Examination to consist of two parts:—

(*a*) TEST. (*b*) VOLUNTARY FOR COMPETITION.

(*a*) *Test Examination.* Marks.

(1) Writing from Dictation in a legible hand ... ... { Spelling ... 60 / Handwriting 40
(2) Writing a Letter on a given subject 75
(3) Writing the Substance of a Chapter, or a portion of a chapter read out, taking into consideration the time in which this exercise is performed ... 75
(4) French. Reading and translation from French into English, and from English into French, and Grammar 150
(5) Addition, Simple and Compound, with reference to time 50
(6) Arithmetic, generally 250
(7) Modern Geography and English History 150
(8) Scripture 100

Candidates will be required to show a competent knowledge of each of the test subjects.

(*b*) *Voluntary.*

(9) Elementary Mathematics—viz., algebra, including quadratic equations and problems producing them, and first three books of Euclid 200
(10) Latin. Translation of passages from books usually read at schools, translation of English into Latin, and grammatical questions 200

(11) The German, Spanish, *or* Italian languages, as in French 100
(12) Elementary Physics — viz., chemistry, heat, properties of solids and fluids, electricity and magnetism 150
(13) Drawing, freehand, and from models 100

No more than three of these subjects may be selected, unless drawing be one, when four may be selected.

A candidate who passes the test examination, but does not succeed in the competition, will be entitled, upon re-nomination, to compete at the next examination, provided he is still within limits of age. No candidate will be allowed to compete more than twice.

Royal Marine Officers.

Admission to the Royal Marine Artillery as Second Lieutenant will be offered to the candidates in order of merit at the open Competitive Examinations for admission to the Royal Military Academy at Woolwich. The examinations will be conducted by the Civil Service Commissioners, and will take place twice a year.

The limits of age will be from 16 to 18, the candidates being required to be within those limits on the 1st of December for the Winter Examination, and on the 1st of July for the Midsummer Examination. They must be 5ft. 5in. in height.

Candidates who are desirous of being appointed to the Royal Marine Artillery must obtain permission from the Military Secretary, Horse Guards, to attend the examinations, and send in their names to the Secretary of the Admiralty.

Candidates who are selected for appointment to the Royal Marine Artillery must, as a condition of entry, produce a certificate of their ability to swim, on their appearance at the Admiralty to take up their appointments, otherwise they will be ineligible. They will also have to undergo examination as to their physical fitness.

Candidates appointed Second Lieutenants will proceed to the Royal Naval College, Greenwich, on 1st of October, for a course of study. Those who pass a satisfactory examination at the end

of the first session after entry will remain at the college for another session, at the end of which they will be again examined, and if they pass satisfactorily will proceed to H.M.S. *Excellent* for instruction in Naval Gunnery and Torpedo.

On passing a satisfactory examination in Naval Gunnery and Torpedo, officers will be advanced to the rank of Lieutenant from the date they pass their examination at the Royal Naval College at the end of the first session.

If a Second Lieutenant fails to pass in Gunnery or Torpedo, he will be discharged from the service, unless he be recommended for and allowed a second trial.

Second Lieutenants of the Royal Marine Artillery will receive 5*s.* 3*d.* a day. Those who are permitted to remain after the first session will be allowed 1*s.* 6*d.* a day mess allowance, until the expiration of their period of study at Greenwich.

Each successful candidate must deposit the sum of £80 with the Accountant-General of the Navy before he can be appointed Second Lieutenant for the Royal Marine Artillery, to provide for his equipment at the Royal Navy College, and on joining his division.

Admission to the Royal Marine Light Infantry will be offered to candidates in order of merit (according to the number of marks obtained, and vacancies), at the Open Competitive Examinations for admission to the Royal Military College at Sandhurst.

The Examinations will be conducted by the Civil Service Commissioners, and will take place twice a year.

Candidates who are desirous of obtaining an appointment in the Royal Marine Light Infantry must first obtain permission from the Military Secretary, Horse Guards, to attend the Examination, and then send in their names to the Secretary of the Admiralty.

The limits of age for candidates for admission by competition will be from 17 to 20; for Students of the Universities, who shall have passed the examinations required in the regulations for admission to the Royal Military College, from 17 to 21; for Graduates of the Universities who shall have passed the Examinations for the degree of B.A. or M.A., from 17 to 22.

Candidates must be 5ft. 5in. in height.

Candidates who are selected for appointment to the Royal Marines must, as a condition of entry, produce a certificate of their ability to swim. They will also have to undergo examination as to their physical fitness.

The successful candidates will be appointed Second Lieutenants in the Royal Marine Light Infantry.

Candidates appointed Second Lieutenants will proceed to the Royal Naval College, Greenwich, on the 1st October, for a course of study extending over one Session, viz., from 1st October to 30th June.

An examination will be held on the conclusion of the course. Officers passing the examination will be advanced to the rank of Lieutenant.

Each successful candidate must deposit the sum of £80 with the Accountant-General of the Navy before he can be appointed Second Lieutenant in the Royal Marine Light Infantry, to provide for his equipment on joining his division.

The pay of a Second Lieutenant, Royal Marine Light Infantry, is 5*s.* 3*d.* a day.

The foregoing are the various modes of obtaining entrance into the Royal Navy.

IV.—The Prospects.

I now come to the prospects of those who have been successful in passing the various examinations obligatory on joining the Navy. This resolves itself largely into a pecuniary question. Promotion in the Navy is undoubtedly slow, but then it is sure, and so is the Pension.

In certain branches of the service the pay varies according to years of service; thus a Staff Commander, a Navigating Lieutenant, a Naval Instructor, a Chaplain, begin at £219, and rise to £401 10*s.* according to length of service. So Fleet, Staff, and Chief Engineers rise from £237 5*s.* to £401 10*s.*, and Fleet, Staff, and Full Paymasters rise from £255 10*s.* to £602 5*s.*

The Naval Cadet begins with £18 5*s.* at 15 or 16 years old, the Midshipman rises to £31 18*s.* 9*d.*, the Sub-Lieutenant to £91 5*s.*, the Lieutenant from £182 10*s.* to £255 10*s.*, the Commander to £365, the Captain from £410 12*s.* 6*d.* to £602 5*s.*, Captain of the Fleet, Commodore of the First Class, Rear-

Admiral to £1095 each, Vice-Admiral to £1460, Admiral to £1825, and Admiral of the Fleet to £2190.

In the Paymaster's branch a Secretary's pay ranges from £273 15*s.* to £547 10*s.*; an Assistant-Paymaster's from £91 5*s.* to £209 17*s.* 6*d.*; a clerk receiving £73, and an assistant clerk £45 12*s.* 6*d.*

It must be remembered that in the lower grades promotion is more rapid than in the upper ranks, just as the branches are fewer as we climb to the top of the tree.

The pay of petty officers and warrant officers who have risen from the lowest round in the ladder compares very favourably with that of the superior officers as given above.

The following are the rates:—

Chief Gunner, Chief Boatswain, Chief Carpenter	£164	5	0					
Gunner, Boatswain, Carpenter	£100	7	6	to	150	11	3
Chief Petty Officer ...	48	13	4	„	57	15	10
First-class Petty Officer ...	39	10	10	„	44	2	1
Leading Seaman	31	18	9				
Able Seaman	28	17	11				
Ordinary Seaman	22	16	3				
Boy	£9	2	6	to	10	12	11

Of course, food and drink are supplied free in addition to the pay here mentioned.

On retiring from the Navy, seamen find that their interests are materially advanced by the fact of their having been members of such an honourable and distinguished service as Her Majesty's Navy. A good man is never lost sight of, but his whereabouts is kept posted up in the books of his old ship, so that any post requiring fidelity and vigilance may be safely entrusted to him. And here I leave Jack and his calling, hoping that many who read these pages may be induced to come forward to supply the serious deficiency of recruits which is casting discredit on our patriotism, and which sadly hampers the usefulness of this noble arm of national defence.

CHAPTER XI.

THE SCHOLASTIC PROFESSION.

By far the greatest number of teachers in England are needed by our public and Board schools. In these two branches of education the number of teachers is very large, and there is every day a continual demand for more.

There is not, as in the case of the Board schools, any necessary and general course of training for a would-be public school teacher. Those who at the Universities gain the highest degrees and honours will, upon entering the scholastic profession, generally receive the highest positions, supposing, of course, that they also possess the necessary qualifications of a teacher, and have received some insight into the training of children. The position of a head master in a large public or grammar school is an enviable one; his income is often £1000 a year—such a position, therefore, well repays him for the expense and labour of his University career. Few can obtain this position in a good public school without being able to show some degree as a proof of their ability; they must be really clever and talented. The work of a head master in a large boys' school is not hard—it is rather a position of responsibility than labour; but the attainment of that position is very difficult, and calls for both labour and patience. As the instruction in our public and grammar schools is more extensive than that given in our Board and elementary schools, so are the requirements necessary to a teacher in the former greater than those in the latter. A Board school teacher does not need a University education, but he must understand intelligently and thoroughly the simplest rules in arithmetic, grammar, &c., so that he may be able to train carefully and correctly the young minds put under

his charge, and, therefore, to fit him for this important work there is a course of study and training arranged for candidates who wish to become masters or mistresses in our Board schools.

The School Board for London has twelve schools at which teachers may be instructed and trained:

Battersea School.—Amies-street, Lavender Hill, S.W.

Chelsea School.—William-street, Hammersmith-road, W.

Deptford School.—Clyde-street, Deptford, S.E.

Finsbury School.—Vittoria-place, Pentonville, N.

Hackney School.—Tottenham-road, Ball's Pond-road, N.

Marylebone School.—The "Brecknock," 13, Clifton-villas, Camden-square, N.W.

Mile End School.—Essex-street, Stepney, E.

Peckham School.—Summer-road, Peckham, S.E.

Southwark School.—The "Alma" School, Southwark Park-road, Bermondsey, S.E.

Stepney School.—Trafalgar-square, Stepney, E.

Stockwell School.—Hackford-road, Brixton, S.W.

Woolwich School.—Church-terrace, Burrage-road, Plumstead.

At these schools both male and female students are admitted, but no candidate is eligible to sit for the preliminary examination, which is held in October, unless he or she will be at least thirteen years of age before the following 1st of January. This examination is not at all difficult, but may be passed easily by an intelligent scholar who has passed the Standard VII.; it includes a fair knowledge of the outlines of the geography of the world and of English history. Candidates who do not possess the power to teach, and who consequently fail to secure nominations to any school, will at the end of four months be obliged to leave the pupil teachers' centre at which they are studying.

Boys and girls when received into any training school must generally serve at least for nine months as candidates, attending the pupil teachers' school five half-days a week and also on Saturday mornings; the five remaining half-days must be devoted to teaching. During the period of candidature there is no salary paid, but in the following November all candidates are examined in arithmetic, English grammar, geography, English history, French, and general knowledge. If the candidate passes

successfully this examination, he becomes a probationer on the following 1st of January, and will receive for teaching—five half-days a week—5*s.* per week if the probationer be a male student; if female, 3*s.* per week. During this year of probation the head teacher of the pupil teachers' school at which the probationer studies, and also the elementary school in which he teaches, will see that he is qualified as a student and teacher, and fitted mentally and physically for his work. In October, if everything is satisfactory, the probationer is examined by H.M. inspector, and, if successful, he then becomes apprenticed for three years from the January following, as a pupil teacher. During the first year of apprenticeship the student is regarded as a second-year pupil teacher, but he nevertheless only receives the same money as he did when a probationer.

During the third and fourth year a pupil teacher only has to attend the pupil teachers' school five half-days a fortnight; the rest of the time he is teaching, and is looked upon as a responsible teacher counting for thirty scholars.

The salary for male pupil teachers in the third year is 12*s.* per week (females, 8*s.* per week). For male pupil teachers in the fourth year, 16*s.* per week (females, 10*s.* per week). If a boy or girl has passed the Junior Oxford or Cambridge Local Examination, he or she may become a first-year probationer without examination; if, however, the corresponding senior examination has been passed, the student may be appointed as a second-year probationer or unindentured pupil teacher. In the "fourth" year pupil teachers sit for the Queen's Scholarship, which is the final examination before entering college, but if a candidate fails twice to pass this examination he cannot be again examined; if, however, he obtains a place in the first or second class, he may be admitted as a Queen's scholar to a day or residential training college—these colleges are voluntary institutions—where he studies thoroughly all that is necessary for a teacher to know, and also teaches for a short time in a practising school, so that he may be able to grasp and overcome thoroughly all the difficulties of good teaching.

Candidates who have not passed through the pupil teachers' course, which, of course, renders this examination comparatively easy, but who would like to sit for examination, must not be over

eighteen years of age, and must make their own arrangements with the authorities of the college for securing a seat.

The subjects in which candidates are examined, and for which they may receive marks, are as follows:

COMPULSORY SUBJECTS.

1. READING AND REPETITION.—To read with expression and ease, also to repeat 100 lines of Shakespeare or Milton with distinctness and power, showing a knowledge of meanings and allusions. In Welsh districts fifty lines of Shakespeare or Milton may be taken with fifty lines from a standard Welsh author, with translation from Welsh to English and *vice versa*. The passages chosen for repetition must be of a secular nature.

N.B.—Candidates employed in Public Elementary Schools must perform these exercises at the inspection of their school next preceding the Examination at which they wish to present themselves. Other Candidates will be heard and marked at the place of Examination. No marks are carried forward from one Examination to another.

2. WRITING.—To set copies in large and small hand. To write clearly.

3. SPELLING.—To write and spell correctly a passage dictated by the Examiner.

4. GRAMMAR AND COMPOSITION.—To paraphrase a passage of prose or poetry. To analyse and parse simple and complex sentences. To show a knowledge of prefixes, roots, and terminations, both English and Latin. Outline of the history of English language and literature. In Wales the sentences set for analysis and parsing may be partly Welsh; a knowledge of Welsh roots, prefixes, and terminations may also be required, and written translations from Welsh into English.

ALTERNATIVE LATIN.—To show knowledge of Latin Grammar and Composition, and to translate correctly a passage from Virgil's Æneid, Book I. If Latin is selected instead of English, it cannot also be taken as a language.

5. ARITHMETIC.—Tradesmen's and Household accounts. Practice. Measures and Multiples. Vulgar and decimal fractions also with their applications. Proportion, with its

application to Stocks, Percentages, Interest, and Averages. Extraction of Square Root. It may also be required to explain and demonstrate the several rules in Arithmetic as to a class of children.

6. ALGEBRA AND MENSURATION (*Men only*).—Algebra. The four simple rules, G.C.M., L.C.M., fractions, square and cube root, simple equations of one or two unknown quantities, and quadratic equations of one unknown quantity, with simple problems leading to any of these equations. Mensuration of plane surfaces.

7. EUCLID (*Men only*).—Euclid, Books I. and II., together with simple deductions.

8. GEOGRAPHY.—Physical, Political, and commercial geography of the World, with a deeper knowledge of that of the British Empire. A map will be set of some part of the British Empire. In Wales there will be questions set relating to Welsh geography and Welsh industries.

9. HISTORY.—British and English history from Julius Cæsar to the present time, with a deeper knowledge of the reign of Charles I. In Welsh districts questions relating to Welsh history will be set. At the December Examination, English history from 1603 to the present time, with a special knowledge of the reign of Charles I.

10. TEACHING.—To give a class lesson on any subject taught in Elementary Schools. (An object lesson may be required.)

Marks for giving a lesson can only be gained by candidates employed as teachers in public Elementary Schools. The lesson must be given at the Inspector's visit to the School in which the candidate is employed next preceding the Queen's Scholarship Examination.

To prepare notes for any such lesson. To answer questions as to the method of giving any such lesson.

In Wales additional credit will be given (in the class teaching lesson) for ability shown in using the scholars' knowledge of Welsh for the acquisition of English, or the better understanding of the English lesson.

Girls may be asked to give a lesson in needlework suitable for any prescribed standard.

11. School Management.—Notes of lessons. The mode of teaching the Elementary and Class Subjects. The methods and principles of infant teaching and discipline, and also of developing the intelligence of young children.

12. Needlework (*Women only*).—1. The various stitches generally used in making and mending calico and flannel underclothing. 2. The cutting out, by proportion or measurement, of a girl's chemise, drawers, and flannel petticoat.

13. Domestic Economy (*Women only*).—The functions and preparation of food. Clothing and washing. Rules for warming, cleaning, and ventilating the house. Laws for preserving health. The management of a sick-room.

Optional Subjects.

1. Music.—(*a*) *Theory of.* The paper may be worked in either notation, but not in both.

Staff Notation: The major and minor scales and signatures. Common musical terms. Compass of voices. Easy transposition. Syncopation. Chromatic Intervals.

Tonic Sol-fa Notation: The major and minor modes. Common musical terms. Compass of voices. Syncopation. Chromatic intervals.

(*b*) *Practical Music.*—Graded tests in time, tune, and ear training, founded upon the requirements for the various school divisions. The highest marks will be given to candidates able to sing at sight passages combining the time and tune required above, and to tell ear exercises correctly.

(i.) Candidates may take theory of music without also taking practical music, if they wish to do so. (ii.) All tests may be sung from the staff or tonic sol-fa notation, at the option of the candidate. (iii.) It will be sufficient if each candidate is tested in time and one other point (song, note, or ear).

2. Languages.—Grammatical questions and simple passages for translation from English into the language chosen, and into English from any of the following books: (i.) Latin, 1894—Cæsar, de Bello Gallico, lib. I. (ii.) Greek, 1894—Xenophon, Anabasis, lib. I. (iii.) French, 1894—X. de Maistre. La Jeune Sibérienne. (iv.) German, 1894—Hauff, Die Karavane. (v.)

Hebrew—First Book of Kings. (vi.) Welsh, 1894—Drych y Prif Oesoedd, Part I.

Marks may be gained for any one of the above languages, but not for more than one. Candidates taking Latin as an alternative for English Grammar and Composition must not take Latin also as a language.

3. SCIENCES.—*Elementary Stage.*—(i.) (*a*) Mechanics of Solids. (*b*) Mechanics of Fluids. (ii.) Chemistry. (iii.) Animal Physiology. (iv.) (*a*) Sound. (*b*) Light. (*c*) Heat. (v.) Magnetism and Electricity. (vi.) Physiography. (vii.) Botany. (viii.) Principles of Agriculture. (ix.) Hygiene. (x.) Physics.

There are no papers in Science set at the Queen's Scholarship Examination. But marks counting in that Examination can be gained by success at one of the May Examinations of the Science and Art Department held either in the same year as the Candidates' Examination for the Scholarship, or the year preceding it.

Marks may be gained for any one of the above Science subjects (the sub-divisions (*a*), (*b*), and (*c*) of (iv.) counting each as one subject in the advanced stage, but together as one subject in the elementary), but not for more than one.

4. DRAWING.—*Elementary Stage.*—(*a*) Freehand. (Subject 2*b*.) (*b*) Model. (Subject 3*a*.) (*c*) Shading from casts. (Subject 5*b*.) (*d*) Practical Plane and Solid Geometry (Science Subject I.).

Exercises in drawing are not given in the Queen's Scholarship Examination. But marks counting at that Examination can be gained by success at any previous May Examination of the Science and Art Department.

5. OTHER SUBJECTS.—Marks are given to the holders of University Extension Certificates awarded during the year preceding the Queen's Scholarship Examination by the University of Cambridge, the University of Oxford, the Victoria University, and the Universities Joint Board of the London Society for the Extension of University Teaching, after examination by some competent examiner other than the teacher or lecturer, on a course of study including not less than twenty-four lectures and classes (of which the candidate claiming marks must have attended not less than twenty) in one of the following subjects:

(i.) A period of English literature, with special reference to

the work of a standard author. (ii.) A special aspect of British history, *e.g.*, the history of Wales, Scotland, Ireland, the Colonies, or India, or some period of the Economic History of England. (iii.) A special aspect of Geography, *e.g.*, the history of Discovery. (iv.) The elements of English architecture, with special reference to ancient buildings visited by the candidate. (v.) Geology. (vi.) Astronomy. (vii.) Meteorology.

The following is a list of Training Colleges (under inspection) where teachers may enter:

FOR MEN ONLY.

Residential Colleges.

Bangor (British and Foreign School Society's).
Battersea (National Society's).
Borough Road (British and Foreign School Society's).
Carmarthen (National Society's).
Carnarvon (Church of England).
Chelsea St. Mark's (National Society's).
Cheltenham (Church of England).
Chester (Chester, Manchester, and Liverpool Diocesan).
Culham (Oxford Diocesan).
Durham (Diocesan).
Exeter (Diocesan).
Hammersmith, St. Mary's (Roman Catholic).
Peterborough (Church of England).
Saltley (Worcester Diocesan).
Westminster (Wesleyan).
Winchester (Diocesan).
York and Ripon (Diocesan).

Day Colleges.

Cambridge (University).
Leeds (Yorkshire College).
Liverpool (University College).
London (King's College).
London (University College).
Oxford (University).

FOR WOMEN ONLY.

Residential Colleges.

Bishop's Stortford (St. Alban's Diocesan).
Brighton (Chichester Diocesan).
Bristol, Gloucester, and Oxford (Diocesan).
Cheltenham (Church of England).
*Chichester (Bishop Otter's Memorial).
Darlington (British and Foreign School Society's).
Derby (Lichfield Diocesan).
Durham (Diocesan).
*Edge Hill.

*Gray's Inn Road (Home and Colonial School Society's).
Lincoln (Diocesan).
Liverpool (Roman Catholic).
Norwich (Diocesan).
*Oxford (Diocesan).
Ripon (York and Ripon Diocesan).
Saffron Walden.
Salisbury (Diocesan).
Southlands, Battersea (Wesleyan).
Stockwell (British and Foreign School Society's).
Swansea (British and Foreign School Society's).
Tottenham (Christian Knowledge and National Societies).
Truro (Exeter Diocesan).
Wandsworth (Roman Catholic)
Warrington (Chester, Manchester, and Liverpool Diocesan).
*Whiteland's (National Society's).

Day Colleges.

Birmingham (Mason Science College).
Bristol (University College).

Homerton New College (Undenominational) for both Masters and Mistresses.

The candidate who succeeds in passing the Queen's Scholarship Examination is recognised as an assistant teacher, and receives a salary of about £50 per year. If, however, he becomes a certificated assistant teacher, he may receive from £60 to £155 per year. Particulars of the Certificate Examination can be obtained by application to the Education Department, Whitehall, London, S.W.

A head master's salary, of course, varies according to the size of the department he has under his charge. He generally receives from £150 to £400 per year; but, since the 16th of November, 1893, the Board resolved: "That the maximum salary of a head master shall in no case exceed £350. This resolution shall only apply in the case of future appointments." Head mistresses of girls' departments receive from £120 to £300, and head mistresses of infants' departments receive from £120 to £240.

Although, of course, these salaries are not so large as those offered to teachers in boys' public and grammar schools, still

* Residential Colleges taking day students.

they are liberal payments when we consider how inexpensive the good training is which all pupil teachers receive before being recognised as masters. Very little money has to be spent by a candidate who wishes to become a Board school master, but a large amount has to be laid out upon the training of a would-be public or high school teacher. This in part accounts for the large numbers who are continually begging entrance at all the pupil teachers' schools. On the other hand, the Board is very careful in selecting candidates, and looks into their home life, if possible, as well as their school life. I therefore recommend those who are not prepared to spend very much upon necessary tuition and training, but who wish to enter the scholastic profession in one of its branches and become a thoroughly good and competent teacher, to enter a pupil teachers' school and receive the excellent training which is there given free of charge, passing through the usual course of study and training (mentioned above), and finally becoming an assistant or head master in one of our Board or public elementary schools.

There is another branch of scholastic work which requires talented men and women—I refer to that of private tuition. Owing to the great increase of public schools and high schools, private tutors and governesses have not been in such demand as they were twenty years ago, yet there are many families where private instructors are necessary to teach delicate or invalid children. Parents find it impossible to send a crippled or weak child to a large public school to be surrounded by a hundred or two healthy and boisterous children, and also to be worried at all times by difficult lessons. For such reasons, therefore, private tutors will always be needed, and if a young man or woman has the necessary ability, and is engaged in a good family, the position will be found to be a pleasant and remunerative one.

Of course, the salaries paid vary very much according to the family in which the tutor is employed, and it must be remembered that he receives board and lodging free of charge. There are also many great advantages which he would not receive if employed in a school. Many clever men fail to become teachers in public schools because of their health; they cannot stand the strain thus put upon their mental and physical powers. But the life of a private tutor in some of the best families

amongst the aristocracy is comparatively easy and often full of variety, for he travels nearly everywhere with his pupil, and has almost the entire charge of him. Such an advantage would be very great to one whose health would not allow him to undertake public school work. It is necessary, of course, to hold a high degree and honours, if the best engagements are to be obtained, and even in small families a tutor's or governess's education must be thorough.

There is yet another branch of teaching I might mention as connected with the scholastic profession—I refer to that of lecturing.

There are at the present time, and the number is continually increasing, many public educational institutions where the arts and sciences are taught to large classes of both sexes and all ages. And at such institutions clever lecturers are being called for continually. A young man who wishes to become a lecturer must make a special study of the one subject he wishes to lecture upon. There are many such lecturers scattered over the country; perhaps the largest number take science as their special subject, and lecture upon chemistry, physics, physiology, botany, geology, astronomy, &c. Others make their special subject mathematics, and several lecture upon English literature.

There is a growing demand for such teachers. This is, no doubt, caused by the developing love for knowledge indulged in by all classes and conditions of men. The end of this century is witnessing another revival of learning; cheap editions of the best literature are stimulating and helping this love. Literature is everywhere. We cannot escape from its influence. Neither do we wish to, for a thoughtful nation is always a grand nation, and an educated people is always a great people.

The conditions of success in this profession are similar to those for the other callings referred to in this work. Hard work, concentration, good health, and a real determination to succeed, are elements that must find their reward in the honourable and valuable art of teaching.

CHAPTER XII.

THE SOLICITOR'S PROFESSION.

The Profession of a Solicitor differs very much from that of its sister calling, the Bar, inasmuch as in the latter pleading is its special feature. But in the case of the Solicitor, except in County Court and Police Court work, advocacy is very little practised; the Solicitor confines himself, unless he goes in for criminal practice, to conveyancing, common law, chancery, bankruptcy, equity, &c. Conveyancing is considered to be one of the most profitable branches of the law, as costs are usually paid at settlement, and purchase deeds are, when titles are clear, very easily prepared. Solicitors, like other men, have often to wait a long time before bills of costs are paid in chancery and other cases, but as a rule do not lose very much by bad debts. Capital in this profession is very necessary, both during articles and while a practice is growing. Many Solicitors make large sums of money, when they have clients with capital, by lending money on real and personal estate. Advances are made by them for which they receive procuration fees and costs for preparation of conveyance and mortgage deeds when acting for both parties. Solicitors are expected to keep the secrets of their clients, who often communicate to them all their domestic troubles, vexations and disappointments, and expect the family solicitor, especially in small towns, to listen patiently, free of all charge, and advise as best he can. Tact, patience, and a good memory are three very useful qualifications in a candidate for the Law. No one should think of becoming a Solicitor unless he has a taste for this calling. I can say most positively with respect to this, as well as to the other Professions mentioned in

this work, that unless you like the Law do not enter it, if you do you will inevitably fail, but if you have a liking for the Legal Profession, and pursue your studies with a real determination to pass your examination with credit, you will succeed.

Before anyone can become a Solicitor three examinations must be successfully passed. One in general knowledge, prior to entering into articles of clerkship, termed the "Preliminary Examination;" another in law, when half the period of pupilage has passed, called "The Intermediate Examination;" and the last or "Final Examination," at the expiration of the clerkship. It will readily be admitted, therefore, that the articled clerk, embryo or actual, requires some assistance in his course of study, which I may at once remark must be methodical and thoughtful. "It cannot be too frequently impressed upon the student that with *method* he may do everything, without it he can do nothing, in legal studies." No study tries the memory like the study of the law. And Sir Henry James, Q.C., in his address to the United Law Students' Society, said "it behoved all students well to study the great profession of the law, more especially now in these modern days, when it was becoming more and more complicated, as society grew more artificial. A student of these latter times had a much more difficult task to perform than those who lived in the days of Blackstone. In the time of that great commentator, and before him, lawyers endeavoured more to grasp at the great ideas and principles of the law than to follow out its sinuosities, as was too often the case in the present time. There was no one to blame for such a state of things, as it was the natural outcome of our present civilization, which was always introducing something new, for which laws had to be made, to protect, control, or put down." Let therefore everyone who determines to enter the law, commence with a firm resolution of overcoming every difficulty.

No profession so severely tries the TEMPER as that of the law. The young student is perpetually called upon to exercise calmness and patience, though fretted by the most provoking difficulties and interruptions. He is apt to feel in a manner enraged, disgusted, dispirited, when he finds from time to time how much he has utterly forgotten that he had most thoroughly learned; and the increasing difficulties of acquiring legal know-

ledge and turning it to practical account; all this, moreover, not in abstract speculative studies, but in those which he must most promptly master, because his livelihood is at stake, his whole future lifetime is to be occupied in them. Do all that he can, strain his faculties to the uttermost, approach his subject by never so many different ways, and in all moods of mind, he will nevertheless be sometimes baffled after all; and on being assisted by his tutor, or possibly, by some junior fellow student, be confounded to think that so obvious a clue as he is then supplied with, could have escaped him. How often has the poor student on these occasions *banged* his books about, and, shutting them up with perhaps a curse, rushed out of chambers in despair. How apt is the recurrence of such mortifications to beget a peevish, irritable, desponding humour, which disgusts the victim of an ill-regulated temper with himself, his profession, and everybody about him. Now let him from the first *calculate* on the occurrence of such obstacles, that so he may rather overcome them than suffer them thus to overcome him. True, legal studies are difficult, often apparently insurmountable; but what of that? DIFFICULTY is a friend; the best friend of the student, not his enemy. Let not, therefore, the youth who has not at least some taste for the Solicitor's Profession, enter it; for to such it will be a dry and uninviting labour; for even its most zealous votaries find its first approaches difficult and toilsome, though afterwards comparatively easy.

But those who enter the Profession with a liking for it, and also as a means of gaining a livelihood, must come prepared to walk its paths with integrity and without corruption.

In the solicitor's profession it is to be lamented that the articled clerk is too often left without any guide or instructor. In most instances he comes into an office direct from school, or perhaps from one of the Universities, and is allowed to struggle through his clerkship as he best can; at most, perhaps, he has an old copy of Blackstone, which has mouldered on his principal's bookshelves for years, put into his hands with injunctions to study it with diligence, and if he should do so, will, in course of time, make the important and mortifying discovery that more than half of it is obsolete, and must be dismissed from his memory. The articled clerk is, in a great many offices, made to

do as much copying as can be got out of him, and even to run mere errands, quite unconnected with the office. In fact, he is made to do the duties of an office boy, instead of being treated by his master as a pupil from whom he has taken a large fee and expressly covenanted to teach and instruct in the "practice or profession of a solicitor." It cannot then be wondered at that the articled clerk turns from the law, as thus presented to him, with dislike, and pursues with ardour the congenial and exciting sports of cricket, boating, or other pleasures, to the entire neglect of his studies and the duties of the office. For these reasons a contest at this period of the clerkship generally takes place between the principal and clerk; if the principal prevails, and the clerk is still used as a mere machine for the principal's benefit, he becomes an unthinking plodder; if the clerk succeeds in throwing off all restraint, and refuses to continue the drudgery set before him, he becomes a thorough idler, and loses all taste for business.

Would it not, then, be better and more just for a solicitor to refuse an articled clerk and the premium paid for the supposed instruction, if that solicitor is, either from being too much engaged in his practice, or, from being himself too ignorant, unable to give proper instruction to one whom he binds himself so to do?

But should the articled clerk, as is too probable, be placed under the guidance of such a master, he will soon become acquainted with the fact, and he should then determine to overcome the difficulties that present themselves, by industry and attention, and by seeking the information he desires from other sources, which is denied by one who ought to give it. Biography, if he will consult it, will encourage him even under these unfavourable circumstances, and will teach him that many men with even less advantageous circumstances than those by which he is surrounded, have not only succeeded, but excelled in their profession.

Saunders was a beggar-boy, taught to write by attorneys' clerks in the Temple, and after serving a clerkship, and practising with success at the Bar, he was made a Chief Justice, and had left behind him some of the best reports extant. Lord Hardwicke, Lord Somers, Sir John Strange, Lord Kenyon, and Lord

Ashburton, arrived at the highest judicial situations, though they were attorneys' clerks. And we have several men now living who have risen from the lowest ranks of the Profession to the highest.

At the Intermediate Examination formerly distinction was given to those candidates under the age of twenty-six who answered better than others, but this has been discontinued. At the Final Examination honours are now thrown open to the competition of all candidates without reference to age.

By the operation of the 40 & 41 Vict. c. 25, and the regulations made thereon, it is provided that every person proposing to enter into articles of clerkship, not having been called to the degree of utter barrister in England, or not having taken the degree of B.A., or LL.B., at the Universities of Oxford, Cambridge, Dublin, Durham, London, the Queen's University in Ireland, or B.A., LL.B., M.A., or LL.D., in any of the Universities of Scotland (none of such degrees being honorary), or passed the first public examination before moderators at Oxford, or the previous examination at Cambridge, or the examination in arts for the second year at Durham, or the matriculation examination of the Universities of London or Dublin (although not placed on the first division of such matriculation examination), or the moderations examination of St. David's College, in the county of Cardigan, Wales, or the junior student's general examination at Owens College, Manchester, or have passed one of the local examinations established by the University of Oxford, or one of the non-gremial examinations established by the University of Cambridge or one of the examinations of the Oxford and Cambridge Schools Examination Board, or the examination for the first-class certificate of the College of Preceptors, must produce to the Registrar of Solicitors a certificate that he has successfully passed an examination by special examiners, duly appointed.

The preliminary examinations are held in the months of February, May, July, and October, on such days and at such places as the committee shall from time to time appoint, and consist of

1. Writing from dictation.
2. Writing a short English composition.

3. Arithmetic.—The first four rules, simple and compound, the rule of three; and decimal and vulgar fractions.

4. Geography of Europe and History of England.

5. Latin.—Elementary knowledge of Latin.

6. Each candidate must also offer himself for examination in *two, at his selection,* of the following languages:—

1. Latin.	3. French.	5. Spanish.
2. Greek, Ancient.	4. German.	6. Italian.

These examinations are conducted in the Hall of the Incorporated Law Society in Chancery-lane, *or* at the following towns, under the supervision of the examiners, or of *two local* solicitors to be appointed by the examination committee:

Birmingham.	Lincoln.
Bristol.	Liverpool.
Cambridge.	Manchester.
Cardiff.	Newcastle-on-Tyne.
Carlisle.	Oxford.
Carmarthen.	Plymouth.
Chester.	Salisbury,
Durham.	Shrewsbury.
Exeter.	Swansea.
Lancaster.	Worcester.
Leeds.	York.

The committee are, five calendar months previous to the time appointed for taking each examination, to leave with the Secretary of the Incorporated Law Society a list of the books selected by them for such examination in the said six languages, and a copy of such list may (by a candidate) immediately thereupon be obtained from the Secretary.

Every person so applying to be examined must, at least thirty days before the examination at which he proposes being examined, give notice in writing to the Secretary of the Incorporated Law Society, Chancery-lane, of his desire to be examined, and state in such notice the two languages in which he proposes to be examined, the place at which he wishes to be examined, and his age and residence and place or mode of education, and such notice must be signed by the candidate.

The following is the form of notice to be given of intention to apply to be examined:—

Notice is hereby given, that A. B., of aged , who was educated at , intends on the and days of next, to present himself for examination at previous to entering into articles of clerkship, and that he proposes to be examined in the and languages.

Dated the day of 18

A. B.
(Present address.)

To the Secretary of the Incorporated Law Society.

The fee payable to the Council of the Incorporated Law Society on giving this notice is £2.

Soon after giving this notice the candidate will receive from the Secretary of the Incorporated Law Society a circular informing him of the time, the place, and the subjects of the examination, also directions as to the mode of conducting it, which are to the following effect:

1. During the examinations candidates will be designated by numbers, and each candidate must write his name and number to every paper he sends in.

2. The time fixed for the examination to begin on each day is half-past nine in the forenoon, but, that a candidate may not be excluded by an accidental delay, half an hour further is allowed.

3. Candidates must deposit all books or papers before entering the examination room.

4. Candidates are not allowed to leave the examination room until half an hour has expired from the commencement of the examination.

5. After quitting the room, no candidate is allowed to return.

6. Candidates detected using a book or manuscript brought for assistance or in copying from the papers of any other candidate, or in giving or receiving assistance, are disqualified and their names removed from the list.

About a month after the examination, the candidate will receive a notice from the Incorporated Law Society, informing him whether he has or has not passed the examination.

If he has been successful, the notice will also state when a certificate to that effect will be ready for delivery.

Candidates who have failed to attend the examination, or who were not successful, may seek to pass any subsequent examination on giving at least fourteen days' previous notice in writing to the Secretary of the Incorporated Law Society, Chancery-lane. A further fee of £1 is payable thereon.

The Preliminary Examination successfully passed, the next thing is to enter into articles of clerkship to a solicitor. No particular form of articles is required, but a form is generally used, which the solicitor always furnishes. If the clerk be not of full age, his father or guardian must be a party to the articles and covenant for him.

The articles bear a stamp duty of £80, which, in order to avoid payment of the penalties imposed by the 33 & 34 Vict. c. 97, sects. 15 and 43, and to obviate any difficulty arising on their registration, should be impressed before their execution.

The second examination which the articled clerk has to pass is called the Intermediate. By the 23 & 24 Vict. c. 127, the 40 & 41 Vict. c. 25, and the Regulations of Nov. 1877, it is provided that every person serving under articles of clerkship shall (save as excepted) present himself at an intermediate examination and be examined within the six months next succeeding the day on which he completes half his term of service, in such elementary works on the laws of England as may be from time to time selected by the Examination Committee: and that the names of the books selected for examination in each year may be obtained from the secretary of the examiners in the month of July in the previous year.

Such Intermediate Examination takes place at the Hall of the Incorporated Law Society, Chancery-lane, on certain specified days in the months of January, April, June, and November in each year.

Candidates are required to give the Secretary of the Incorporated Law Society at least *thirty days'* notice before the date of the examination at which they propose to be examined within the limit above mentioned, and at the same time to leave their articles of clerkship and any assignment thereof, or supplemental articles, duly stamped and registered, together with a certificate of their having passed the Preliminary Examination (unless they shall have been exempted therefrom and then evidence showing

the right to such exemption must be produced), and answers to the questions as to due service and conduct up to that time. Prints of these questions can be obtained on application at the office of the Incorporated Law Society.

The following may be the form of the notice above referred to :—

TO THE SECRETARY OF THE INCORPORATED LAW SOCIETY.

Notice is hereby given, that who is now [or was lately] under articles of clerkship to of intends to apply for Intermediate Examination in next.

Dated the day of 18 .

Signature of candidate or his agent.

Present address :—

If the candidate has been assigned, it should be so stated in the notice.

Candidates who fail to pass, or attend at the examination for which they have given notice, may attend at any subsequent Intermediate Examination. A *renewed* notice must, in that case, be given fourteen days at least before the date of such subsequent examination.

The fee payable on giving notice of examination is £3, and for a *renewed* notice £1 10*s*.

On a *renewed* notice being given candidates are requested to write the word "Renewed" at the head of the paper.

The Third, or Final Examination takes place when the period of service under the articles has expired.

The fee payable on giving notice of examination is £5, and for a renewal notice £2 10*s*.

The examiners' certificate of having passed the Final Examination having been obtained, the candidate must next, if he wishes to practise as a solicitor, proceed to get admitted in the Supreme Court.

The Master of the Rolls now appoints a day for the admission of successful candidates on the roll of solicitors; and to this end has ordered that every person applying to be admitted as a solicitor must, six weeks before the day of the month in which he proposes to be admitted, cause to be delivered at the Petty Bag Office a written notice, signed by himself, containing a statement of his place of abode, and the name or names, and place or places of abode of the person or persons with whom he

served his articles of clerkship, and containing in addition thereto a statement of the place or places of abode or service for the last preceding twelve months.

The following may be the form of the notice:—

Notice is hereby given that A. B. of whose place of abode [*or* service if *still under articles*] now is, and for the last preceding twelve months has been at and who now is [*or* lately was] under articles of clerkship to C. D. of solicitor of the Supreme Court (*a*) intends to apply in the month of next, to be admitted a solicitor of the Supreme Court.

Dated this day of 18

A. B.

The next step is to take out a certificate before you would be allowed to practise as a solicitor.

For the purpose of obtaining the certificate, it is necessary to deliver to the Registrar of Solicitors a declaration in duplicate, containing the party's name and place of business, and when and where admitted; and, if he is entitled to the certificate, the Registrar will then give him one; and upon producing it, and the duplicate declaration at the Inland Revenue Office, Somerset House, and paying the duty, the stamped certificate will be granted. It requires enrolment.

The certificate expires on the 15th of November in each year, but until the 16th of December following the Solicitor is allowed to renew it, and if renewed before that day it relates back to the 15th of November: if renewed on a subsequent day it will not so relate back, but the solicitor is uncertificated during the period that may elapse between the 15th of November and the day of renewal.

If any solicitor neglects to renew his annual stamped certificate within the time limited by law, the Registrar of Solicitors is not afterwards to grant a certificate to such solicitor without the order of the Master of the Rolls, who may by such order impose terms.

The amount of stamp duty payable annually on a certificate to practise within ten miles of the General Post Office, London, is for the first three years £4 10*s*., and for each subsequent year £9. And if it is to enable the solicitor to practise more than ten miles from the General Post Office, London, the amount of

duty paid annually is for the first three years £3, and for each subsequent year £6.

I have endeavoured to give an outline of the qualifications necessary for the Profession of a Solicitor, some of the difficulties with which articled clerks have to contend, and the examinations which they have to pass before they can take out their certificate to practise.

Premiums vary from 100 guineas to 300 guineas, but this would be regulated by the position occupied by the firm to which you would be articled. During your five years of articles you would receive no salary, except by special arrangement; therefore this Profession should not be entertained by you unless either you or your friends have capital.

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19 Ward and Lock's Picture A B C.
20 Tegg's Resdiest Reckoner.
21 Beeton's Sixpenny Cookery.
22 Beeton's Cottage Cookery.
23 Beeton's Popular Song Book.
24 Beeton's Favourite Song Book.
25 How to Save Money.
26 Small Savings; and How to make the Most of Them.
27 Beeton's Sixpenny Spelling.
28 Mercie Sunshine's Picture A B C.
29 Intoxicating Drinks.
30 The Secret of a Happy Home.
31 To Those about to Marry.
32 Profitable and Economical Poultry Keeping.
33 Mrs. Beeton's Englishwoman's Cookery Book.

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on 11 March, 2020